CAREER ASPIRATIONS, FUTURE EXPECTATIONS, AND IMMEDIATE CAREER PLANS OF LEVEL III STUDENTS FROM SELECTED RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

CALVIN W. WHALEN

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CAREER ASPIRATIONS, FUTURE EXPECTATIONS, AND IMMEDIATE CAREER PLANS OF LEVEL III STUDENTS FROM SELECTED RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the career aspirations, immediate career plans, and future career expectations of Level III students from selected rural and urban areas of Newfoundland and Labrador. This study also examined student perceptions of factors that were considered to be problematic in deciding career plans as well as factors that influenced their career plans.

Individual questionnaires were administered to 104 Level III students attending five different Senior High schools located in rural communities within the Green Bay area, and 67 Level III students attending a Senior High school located in the province's largest urban center and capital, St. John's. Data analysis was completed using the statistical program, SPSS. Descriptive statistics that included frequencies, percentages, and crosstabs were used along with chi-squared analysis to summarize findings and compare differences.

The career aspirations of students were consistent with findings reported in earlier studies. Although most students, particularly males, made gender stereotypical choices in occupations, their choices overall were in growth areas that hold promise for future employment. Approximately three-quarters of the students planned to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation. Most students expected to be employed full-time outside the province in five to ten years after high school graduation.

The factors most commonly perceived by students to be problematic in deciding career plans were: not knowing what program to do, lack of academic qualifications, and the

high cost of post-secondary education. Community attachment was considered by most rural students not to be a problem in pursuing post-secondary education or employment.

Most students perceived that their parents played the most significant role in influencing their career plans followed by friends and academic ability. Females perceived their mothers were more influential on their career plans while males perceived their fathers as being more influential.

It is recommended that government, post-secondary institutions, schools, and community agencies partner together in more deliberate and direct ways to educate students about the labour market, its trends, and future occupations, and to guide them more effectively in their career planning process. It is also recommended that parents be empowered through such partnerships to provide informed and adequate career guidance to their children.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions and career aspirations of the 1999 Level 3 students from selected rural and urban areas of Newfoundland and Labrador. The objectives may be stated as follows: i) to examine the career aspirations, immediate career plans, and future career expectations of rural and urban Level 3 students; ii) to obtain student perceptions as to the factors that influenced their career aspirations and plans; and iii) to delineate some of the factors that those students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans.

Significance of Study

If there is one word that best captures the essence of life in Newfoundland over the past decade, it is change. Nowhere has this become more evident than in the context of Newfoundland's economy. Globalization of world markets accompanied by massive technological advancement have brought rapid change to the provincial economy as companies and industries began adjusting to these worldwide economic trends. Parallelling those global changes, Newfoundland's economy, particularly in rural areas, also experienced change over the past decade due to economic downturns within many of its own resource-based industries and in particular, its fishery. The result of these changes has been increased

unemployment rates due to dramatic job loss, lower family incomes, and high rates of outmigration by people in need of work. Recent statistics indicate that the provincial unemployment rate is approximately double the national average and that high levels of outmigration is occurring especially among youth. In fact, 66.6% of the 9,285 people who outmigrated in 1996/1997 were in the age range 15 - 29 (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998a). The average family income is 20% lower than the Canadian average, and the gap is increasing (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998a). It is not surprising, then, that this province with its prevalence of low family incomes has been found to have a high rate of child poverty (Canadian Mental Health Association, 1998).

The impact of such changes upon youth has been severe and negative. The full extent of the impact is yet to be realized. The Canadian Mental Health Association (1998), in a study designed to assess the impact of recent economic change upon Newfoundland's youth, reported that many youth living in rural areas of the province are dealing with " a social environment of uncertainty and hopelessness brought about by economic change" (p.5). Many of them have to cope with high unemployment rates, declining community populations due to out-migration, rising costs for post-secondary education, and the very real prospect of having to leave the province in order to establish a secure future. In a study of 55 families displaced by the fishery, 85% of the adolescents expected they would have to leave their communities to find work (Canning and Strong, 1997 cited in Canadian Mental Health Association, 1998). Genge (1996) also found in her survey of 240 high school students on the Northern Peninsula that over three quarters of them were prepared to leave home to find

jobs even though they would prefer to work near home. A study conducted by the Canadian Mental Health Association (1994) in two Newfoundland fishing communities shortly after the cod moratorium reported that the youth had experienced notable changes in areas of career, educational, and job aspirations. In a later study on the impact of economic change on the youth of this province, some youth expressed the view that recent economic downturn has destroyed the work ethic of enterprising Newfoundlanders by making them dependent on government support and in the process has created a group of dependent youth as well (Canadian Mental Health Association, 1998). The tragedy of such change is that it has resulted in the existence of such conditions that are connected with, besides other things, the acceptance by youth of lower expectations for the future (Canning, 1996 cited in Canadian Mental Health Association, 1998).

In the midst of such drastic and negative economic change, however, this past decade has also witnessed new and prospective economic developments provincially that have sparked some hope for the future of Newfoundland's youth. The development and operation of the Hibernia offshore oil project, for example, has opened up a whole new industry for Newfoundland. Prospects of future developments in resource-based industries such as oil and gas at the Terra Nova project and on the province's West coast, mining at Voisey's Bay, hydroelectric power generation at the Lower Churchill, and a more diversified fishery all point to the resource potential within this province to provide a promising future for many of its youth in the new millennium. In fact, a recently released co-operative study by Newfoundland Ocean Industries Association (NOIA), the Offshore Technologies Association

of Nova Scotia (OTANS) and the Metal Working Association of New Brunswick (MWANB) on Canada's East Coast offshore oil and gas industry indicated that in less than 15 years, more than 24,000 Atlantic Canadians could be directly or indirectly involved in the offshore industry (Doyle, 1998). Furthermore, the rapid growth that is occurring in newer and non-traditional industries such as Technology and Tourism is giving the youth of Newfoundland and Labrador some hope that new employment opportunities will be there when they need them. The economic outlook for Newfoundland and Labrador is predicted to greatly improve with strong growth expected by the year 2000 (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1997). In fact, in 1998 Newfoundland's economy experienced its most significant growth in years (Premier Tobin, Election Night Speech, February, 9, 1999). Should such a trend continue, it is the youth of Newfoundland and Labrador who stand to benefit.

It is in this decade of change that the 1999 Level 3 students of Newfoundland and Labrador have been developing career aspirations, forming tentative career goals, and wrestling with choosing a pathway of transition into the workforce. This transition process has become increasingly challenging for the youth of this province over the last decade. Besides having to cope with the difficult process of choosing a career path that is both realistic and promising, these students also have to deal with other mounting challenges in their pursuit of either post-secondary education or employment. Raised entrance requirements to some post-secondary institutions coupled with increased tuition fees are two factors that have made the pursuit of post-secondary education a much more difficult transitional path to take for many of Newfoundland's high school graduates. For those

hoping to begin work immediately after graduation, an already large number of unemployed and experienced workers found in so many Newfoundland communities with limited job opportunities has substantially decreased their prospects for employment. Such challenges have, without a doubt, affected the career aspirations and transitional pathways that these students are bound to follow.

The link between educational attainment and employment is well established in the literature. Studies by the Department of Education and other agencies have shown that successful employment is closely related to educational attainment. In fact, the higher the level of education, the greater the chance of employment and that it will be in the area of training (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998a). Educational level is also highly correlated with not only the type but also the length of employment, level of compensation, and quality of life (Genge, 1996). Numerous studies have shown that higher levels of educational attainment are linked to higher levels of employment while lower levels of education are linked to higher levels of unemployment (Sharpe and White, 1993).

The future prosperity of Canada and Newfoundland depends on an educated workforce that will be able to meet the changing demands of a global economy (Sharpe and White, 1993). More than ever, higher levels of education are required in order to function and work in the economy of the new millennium. Labour Market Analysts have predicted that a high percentage of jobs in the future will require some form of post-secondary education. In fact, it is expected that more than 60% of the new jobs created in Canada between 1995 and 2005 will require 5 or more years of training and education beyond high

school. Those who do not meet the required level of education and skills will find fewer and fewer employment opportunities (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1997).

The changing economy in both Canada and Newfoundland has also resulted in a changing occupational structure. Traditional occupations of the past that required lower levels of education have decreased sharply while other and newer occupations requiring highly skilled and educated workers have dramatically increased. Over the next few years, for example, employment prospects in Newfoundland for Trades Helpers, Construction Labourers, and other related occupations are very poor while the prospects for employment in professional and technical occupations in health as well as natural and applied sciences are very good (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998b). It is essential that the youth of this province be aware of such trends as they make plans for a successful transition into the workforce.

Students graduating from the high schools in Newfoundland and Labrador must be prepared to meet the challenging demands of a growing and changing economy. These workers of the future will have to be flexible and adaptable as they can expect to change jobs several times throughout their working career. Such changes will require the acquisition of new skills and knowledge that only a good educational background will be able to provide (Sharpe and White, 1993). Given the strong body of evidence for the value of post secondary education, there is a need to more fully understand the reasons why a substantial number of high school graduates decide not to pursue further education after high school.

Research dealing with the transitional patterns and process of Newfoundland and

Labrador high school graduates has been limited but is growing. The most comprehensive information has been provided by the longitudinal *Youth Transitions Into the Labour Market* study of Sharpe and Spain (1991) which surveyed both rural and urban level three students in Newfoundland and Labrador in 1989. A third follow-up survey of this study found that 48% of the high school students surveyed had entered some kind of post secondary program within 6 months after leaving high school and an additional 14.8% had entered by the end of 18 months (Sharpe and White, 1993). The study also found that those who did not attend a post secondary institution were most likely to be male from a rural area of the province, older than the average for the sample, and living in their home community. The most recent information on the transition patterns of Newfoundland and Labrador high school graduates has been provided by the Government of Newfoundland and Labrador (1998a) follow-up study of those who graduated in 1995 and 1996. This study revealed that as of August 1997, 73.4% of the 1996 graduates and nearly 80% of the 1995 graduates were enrolled in a post secondary program. In addition, of the 1996 graduates not attending a post secondary institution as of August 1997, 73.9% of them indicated they planned to attend in the future with the vast majority planning to attend by the end of 1998. Such findings indicate that despite the challenges that make the pursuit of post secondary education increasingly difficult for the high school graduates of Newfoundland and Labrador, increasing numbers of these students have decided to begin such a pursuit as they embark upon their transitional pathways into the workforce.

The formation of career aspirations and plans are an important part of the

developmental process of high school students. Desosaran (1976) cited in Shave (1984) defined aspirations as what a student wants to do or the goal(s) s/he would like to attain. Shave (1984) defined aspirations more specifically as the educational and/or occupational goals a person would like to attain. Although career aspirations may change as the student moves through high school, it is near the end of the high school years that aspirations become more defined. Aspirations are critical at this time because they provide the focus for the transitional process and ultimately guide the career decisions and plans the student makes. Studies have shown that students who have formed career aspirations and plans are likely to pursue post-secondary education (Crowley, Pollard, and Rumberger, 1983 cited in Sharpe and White, 1993). As Anisef (1973) cited in Shave (1984) pointed out, aspirations are a powerful determinant in the educational decisions of students. Attention to career aspirations is important because the diminishing of such aspirations in students could result in them viewing education as irrelevant to their futures (McLoyd, 1989 cited in Reid, 1995). If the high school students of Newfoundland and Labrador are to be successfully guided and supported in their transition from school to work at the beginning of the new millennium, it is essential that both educators and parents be aware of student aspirations and plans. Such awareness can only serve to facilitate an appropriate match between student goals and society's occupational demands. This is especially important for the rural student because of the extra financial cost involved for them to pursue their aspirations through the post secondary system.

There are numerous factors that influence and help shape an individual's career

aspirations and plans. Some of these include gender, family influences (Herr and Cramer, 1996) and place of residence (Hollihan, 1995; Shave, 1984). Research has shown that parents play a significant role in the career development of their children (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Lehr and Jeffery, 1996). Lehr and Jeffery (1996) in their study of the career needs of rural youth in Newfoundland and Labrador found considerable evidence in the literature for the significant role parents play in the development of career aspirations and choices of youth. Poole (1983) cited in Lehr and Jeffery (1996), for example, found after studying close to 800 Australian 14 year olds that students who talked frequently with their parents had far more definite ideas about their job choices and educational plans than those students who did not talk to parents. She also found that students who had good relationships with parents were more willing to seek guidance from other sources. Lehr and Jeffery (1996) concluded from their findings that parents are a major influence on the occupational aspirations and expectations of youth. Consequently, parents must be considered as important agents in helping their children make informed career choices (Herr and Cramer, 1992).

Place of residence has also been recognized as playing an influential role in the career aspirations of youth. Rural versus urban residence has been found to be an important variable in the educational and occupational aspirations of youth (Hollihan, 1995; Shave, 1984). Lyson (1986) cited in Hollihan (1995) noted in pointing out the significance of place of residence upon career development that "a rural or urban context can be seen as a set of parameters through which and by which career plans are shaped, molded, and eventually crystallized" (p. 69). Research on differences in career aspirations between rural and urban

students have found that, in general, rural youth tend to have lower aspirations than their urban counterparts (Hollihan, 1995). This difference has been attributed to the unique and limiting factors associated with rural areas such as limited access to career support services, reduced access to higher education, limited educational programs to choose from, limited finances, limited occupational support, lack of role models, and more traditional lifestyles and roles. As well, family structure variables associated with rural areas such as low socioeconomic status, large families, low educational level of parents, and low parental expectations for their children have been cited in the literature as factors that account for rural-urban differences in career aspiration levels (Hollihan, 1995).

Although urban and rural students have to deal with some common factors in making the transition from school to work, rural students in Newfoundland and Labrador differ from their urban counterparts in their overall career development and school to work transition. The context in which the career aspirations and plans are formed differs for rural and urban students in Newfoundland and Labrador. Economically, most rural students live in communities that have been experiencing high unemployment rates, increasing job losses that are not being replaced with new ones, and declining populations due to the high rate of out-migration (Canadian Mental Health Association, 1998). Such an economic environment can only have a dramatic effect on the career aspirations of youth. Rural youth also face more and different barriers that they must overcome in making their transition from school to work (Sharpe and White, 1993). Most, for example, have to leave their home communities if they are to pursue either post secondary education or employment. The extra financial resources

required by rural students to follow such a plan can be a determining factor in the career aspirations they develop and the career path they ultimately take.

Theoretical Framework

A variety of career development theories exist that help to facilitate understanding of the process of career development. A review of these theories indicated that career development is a complex process that is influenced and shaped by both personal/ internal and environmental/external factors. The theoretical framework for this study flows out of developmental, sociological, and social learning theories. These three theoretical areas deal with the internal and external factors that shape the career development process and ultimately influence career decisions.

Developmental Theory

Developmental approaches to career development focus on the way an individual develops vocationally over the lifespan. Key to developmental theories is the understanding that career development is a lifelong process that is inextricably entwined and shaped within the stages of personal development. Herr and Cramer (1992) summarize developmental approaches to career development as being concerned with "longitudinal expressions of career behavior" (p. 207), the importance of the self-concept, and the process involved in the development of career behavior.

The most representative and comprehensive development theory is that developed by

Donald Super. His theory emphasizes that career development, like human development, is evolutionary in nature (Osipow, 1983). According to Super, vocational development essentially involves the development and implementation of one's self-concept vocationally. As the individual moves through predictable developmental life stages, systems of self-concepts develop and mature. One of these is the career self-concept. This self-concept emerges through physical and mental growth, identification with working adults, observation of work, the environment, and one's general experiences (Zunker, 1981). The goal of the career development process is to choose and enter an occupation that will permit the expression of that self-concept (Osipow, 1983).

The occupational self-concept of a well integrated person is continually developing and changing through life in response to experiences which dictate necessary adjustment. As an individual matures, the self-concept matures prompting decisions about education and work that are consistent with his/her self-concept (Osipow, 1983).

The manner in which the self-concept is implemented occupationally, however, is dependent upon conditions external to the individual (Osipow, 1983). This can be understood in light of Super's concept of career patterns. According to Super, people's career behaviors follow general patterns which are the result of psychological, physical, situational, and societal factors. As Super postulates:

> The nature of the career pattern-that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs- is determined by the individual's parental socioeconomic level, mental ability, education, skills,

personality characteristics (needs, values, interests traits, and self-concepts), and career maturity and by the opportunities to which he or she is exposed" (Herr and Cramer, 1992, p. 210).

Super's theory has explicitly blended career development with personal development. The most basic assumptions of his theory indicate that the development of self and its occupational expression is ultimately a function of the interplay between physiological, psychological, and social/economic factors (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Sharf, 1992).

Sociological/Situational Theory

Another theoretical perspective that has informed the understanding of career development in recent years is often referred to as the sociological approach. This approach emphasizes the notion that elements external to and beyond the individual's control significantly influences the course of life including educational and career decisions (Osipow, 1983). There is a substantial body of research supporting the idea that situational/sociological variables such as gender, race, place of residence, educational and occupational level of parents, and school environment influence career aspirations and choice (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Borow, 1989; Hotchkiss and Borow, 1990; Lipsett, 1962; Sewell and Shah, 1968). Astin (1984), in a study of career choice among women, concluded that social and environmental variables were critically important in both their educational and career decisions.

A key contributor to this theoretical field was Bronfenbrenner. His ecological theory asserts that the environment is comprised of four interconnected ecological structures that interact together with the individual and as a result, impact the career development process. Bronfenbrenner's ecological model acknowledges that an individual's self-concepts, values, opportunities, and aspirations are determined by the cumulative effect of the influential interaction between the individual and his or her ecological contexts (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

Accident theory is a significant component of the sociological perspective. This theory recognizes the impact that unforseen events and/or chance encounters can have on career development and choices (Herr and Cramer, 1996). Individuals aspiring to unskilled occupations are likely to be vulnerable to chance events (Sharf, 1992). Osterman (1989) cited in Sharf (1992) found that adolescents from low socioeconomic backgrounds usually acquire lower level unskilled service jobs through chance encounters. The degree of success one has in coping with such events is believed to be largely determined by the strength of one's self-concept and internal control (Sharf, 1992). This theory is particularly relevant to the youth of Newfoundland and Labrador given the role that chance has played in their career development with the closure of the fishery.

Social Learning Theory

Krumboltz and associates have developed a social learning theory of career development based on the work of Bandura that is rooted in reinforcement theory and

classical behavioralism. According to Mitchell and Krumboltz (1984), it is a person's unique learning experiences, not innate developmental or psychic processes, that are key to understanding his or her personality and behavior patterns.

Krumboltz's theory asserts that career development and selection are determined by four factors: 1) genetic endowment and special abilities that refer to an individual's inherited or innate characteristics; 2) environmental conditions or events including social, educational, and occupational conditions external to the individual; 3) learning experiences that can be either instrumental, or associative; and 4) task approach skills such as problem solving skills and cognitive processes resulting from interactions among the other three factors (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Sharf, 1992). The interaction of these four factors result in three consequences. The first are self-observation generalizations, or essentially self-views that an individual learns based on life experiences. The second consequence is task approach skills comprised of an individual's cognitive abilities and emotional dispositions used for interpreting, predicting, and dealing with the environment. Finally, the third consequence is action outcomes. These are specific, decision-related behaviors that develop from the other two consequences (Osipow, 1983). The social learning model of career development emphasizes the impact of prior learning experiences upon the development of these three consequences and ultimately upon the career decision making process. As Krumboltz, Mitchell, and Gelatt (1976) cited in Herr and Cramer (1992) state:

> It is the sequential cumulative effect of numerous learning experiences affected by various environmental circumstances and the individual's cognitive and emotional

reactions to these learning experiences and circumstances that cause a person to make decisions to enroll in certain educational program or become employed in a particular occupation (p. 176).

Recent theories have grown out of the social learning theory of career development such as the Self Efficacy Theory and Social Cognitive Career Theory. Developed by Betz and Hackett (1981, 1983) cited in Osipow (1983), self-efficacy theory is concerned with personal beliefs or expectations about one's capability to perform given behaviours. This theory postulates that career behavior is determined by the level and strength of one's self-efficacy. This theory has been particularly useful in studying gender differences in career development (Osipow, 1983).

Social Cognitive Career Theory, as developed and explained by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994, 1996) cited in Lent and Brown (1996), is based in constructivism, a philosophical perspective that envisions individuals as active influencers of both their personal development and environment. Consequently, an individual can actively guide his or her own career development process (Lent and Brown, 1996). This theory conceptualizes a dynamically influential relationship between social cognitive variables such as self-efficacy and personal goals and various other aspects of the individual and the environment that serve to regulate that person's career behavior (Lent and Brown, 1996).

Each of the theories examined focus on specific factors that influence to some degree the career development process. Since career development is a complex lifelong process,

these theories highlight the internal and external factors that are interwoven into that process. Each of the theories is further examined and explained later in this study.

Research Questions

The main purpose of this study is to examine the career aspirations, immediate career plans, and future career expectations of a sample of rural and urban Level III students in Newfoundland and Labrador. Specifically, the following research questions will be used to guide the study of this sample of Level III students.

1. What are the students' career aspirations?

2. What are the students' immediate career plans?

3. What are the students' future career expectations?

4. What are students' reasons for deciding not to further their education immediately after high school graduation?

5. How do students plan to fund their post-secondary education for next year?

6. What factors influenced students' immediate career plans?

7. What factors did students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans?

8. What are student perceptions regarding their parents' level of agreement with their

immediate career plans?

9. What are students' perceptions regarding what their parents think they should do immediately after high school?

10. What are students' perceptions of their self-esteem and community attachment?

11. Are there gender differences on students' career aspirations?

12. Are there gender differences on students' immediate career plans?

13. Are there gender differences on students' future career expectations?

14. Are there gender differences on students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation?

15. Are there gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans?

16. Are there gender differences on factors perceived by students as problematic in deciding career plans?

Limitations of Study

Since no follow-up of the sample is proposed as part of this study, there will be no way of knowing if what the students reported will even be realized. It must be kept in mind

that this study surveyed student perceptions and not their realities.

Another limitation is inherent in the questionaire method of data collection. Student interpretation of questions and the care with which the student answered them cannot be controlled. Consequently, this method of data collection poses problems that are beyond the control of the researcher and this study.

The low response rate (26%) of the targeted urban population resulted in 61% of the overall sample being rural while 39% were urban. Such a rural bias in the overall sample posed a significant limitation on this study because rural/urban comparisons could not be made. As such, the data could not be analysed for the purpose of determining significant differences between the rural and urban samples. As well, given the small urban sample obtained by this study, the probable lack of overall representativeness limits the generalizability of the findings from this sample to the general urban Level III population.

Definition of Key Terms

1. **Rural** - communities with populations of 5000 or less.
2. **Urban** - communities with populations above 5000.
3. **Career aspirations** - a particular educational or occupational goal as defined by the Canadian Classification Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO) and the Specific Vocational Preparation (SVP) that an individual desires to attain.
4. **Future career expectations** - employment status, occupation, and general area of residence expected in five to ten years. This also includes the expectation to be

5. **Immediate career plans** - the educational or occupational decisions a student intends to actively pursue during the school year after high school graduation.

6. **General Educational Development (GED)** - embraces those aspects of education (both formal and informal) that contribute to a worker's reasoning development, ability to follow instructions, and the acquisition of mathematical and language skills. The GED level required by an occupation is expressed on an ascending numerical scale ranging from 1 to 6 with 1 representing an approximate duration of formal schooling of less than 6 years and 6 representing an approximate duration of 17 or more years.

7. **Specific Vocational Preparation (SVP)** - is a nine-digit scale representing the time required to learn the techniques and skills needed for an occupation. 1 represents a very short time demonstration involving a few hours or days while 9 represents a time period of more than 10 years.

8. **Self-Esteem** - is the attitude of self-respect an individual has about his/her personality, appearance, adequacy and ability to achieve academically, and is strengthened when the person feels accepted by others.

9. **Community Attachment** - the feelings of attachment or emotional bonding an individual has to his/her home community.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A review of selected literature related to the topic of career development, particularly in the rural context, is presented in this chapter. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part provides an overview of several different theories that address the essential components of career development. The second part reviews the literature on rural life in general and, then specifically, highlights literature pertaining to career development in rural youth.

Developmental Theory

Developmental approaches to career development fit into the broad range of life-span theory that focus on the ways an individual develops vocationally over the lifespan. Unlike earlier theories of career development that viewed career behavior in terms of single point in time decisions, developmental theories attempt to formulate a systematic and orderly understanding of career development over the lifespan. These theories were among the first attempts to reflect modern understanding of the complex, lifelong process of human development. Essentially, then, developmental theory emphasizes career development as a lifelong process that is inextricably entwined and shaped within the stages of overall personal development. Herr and Cramer (1992) summarized developmental theory of career development as concerned with "the longitudinal expression of career behavior"(p. 207),the

importance of the self-concept, and the process involved in the development of career behavior.

Zunker (1981) credited Ginzberg and associates (1951) cited in Zunker (1981) as the first to approach career selection from a developmental perspective. They proposed that occupational choice is the culmination of a process that begins in early childhood and spans the developmental years into early adulthood. These years are divided into three stages: 1) the fantasy stage (birth to age 11); 2) the tentative stage (11 to 17); and 3) the realistic stage (17 to early 20's). A major criticism of this theory is that it does not provide strategies for facilitating career development or explanations of the developmental process (Zunker, 1981, p.7). Its major contribution appears to have been in providing a framework for the further study of career development (Osipow, 1983).

The most well known comprehensive developmental theory is that of Donald Super (Bailey and Stadt,1973 cited in Zunker, 1981). Osipow (1983) described Super's theory as a blend of self-concept theory rooted in Rogers, Carter, and Bordin and the developmental psychology of Charlotte Buehler. Super (1990) described his theory as a segmental one comprised of career developmental theories taken from differential, social and phenomenological psychology and tied together with self-concept and learning theory.

Super based his theory on fourteen propositions. These basic assumptions postulate that as an individual moves through predictable developmental life stages, self-concepts emerge and become defined; career development is essentially the process of developing and implementing one's vocational self-concept; career maturity is signified by the individual's

degree of readiness to accomplish vocational developmental tasks appropriate to each stage; and life satisfaction is ultimately dependent upon the congruence between one's life roles and self-concepts (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

This theory divides the lifespan into stages and substages through which the individual must pass in the course of maturation. Specifically, the five career developmental stages are as follows: 1) growth (birth to 14); 2) exploration (15 to 24); 3) establishment (25 to 44); 4) maintenance (45 to 64); and 5) decline (65 +). Although notions of career awareness and choices are evident in the growth stage, it is during the exploratory and establishment stages where individual capacity, attitudes, interests, and needs become clarified, and that career choices become crystallized and eventually stabilized through implementation (Zunker, 1981). Movement through the various stages can be recycled at any time during the lifespan whenever occupational dissatisfaction calls for the re-exploring and re-establishing of new career choices (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Sharf, 1992).

Significant to Super's theory are his concepts of life roles and his definition of career. Super (1984) cited in Herr and Cramer (1996) envisions the life span as a rainbow comprised of a variety of roles that evolve and interact with each other sequentially and simultaneously over the lifespan. Specifically, there are nine roles each person participates in during life. They are 1) child, 2) student, 3) leisurite, 4) citizen, 5) worker, 6) spouse, 7) homemaker, 8) parent, and 9) pensioner. These roles, for the most part, are played out in the four main arenas of life: the home, the community, the school, and the workplace. As Sharf (1992) points out, these stages of career development process can be viewed only in the context of

the various life roles that constitute a person's life.

Arising out of his concept of life roles is Super's definition of career. A career is not seen as a one time occupational choice event but the totality of one's sequential and simultaneous interacting life roles. Super (1976) cited in McDaniels and Gysbers (1992) states that a career is "the sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his pre-occupational, occupational, and post-occupational life; includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner together with complementary vocational, familial, and civic roles" (p. 10). He later clarified his understanding of career as constituting "the life course of a person encountering a series of developmental tasks and attempting to handle them in such a way as to become the kind of person he or she wants to become" (Super,1990 cited in Herr and Cramer, 1992, p. 212).

In this context, Super envisioned career development as a lifelong developmental process that is affected by the interactions between personal and environmental variables as the individual moves through the life stages. These interactions contribute to the development and differentiation of one's system of self concepts, a key component in Super's conceptualization of the development process.

According to Super (1963) cited in Osipow (1983), one of the self-concepts or images of oneself that develops during maturation is the career self-concept. This self-concept, that begins in early childhood becomes more defined and differentiated as the individual progresses through the developmental stages. Through the process of identification with the like-sex parent and working adults, role playing, observation of work, and interaction with

the general environment, this self-concept becomes more clearly defined. During adolescence, when experiences broaden as to the occupational world, the individual is able to further clarify and stabilize this self-concept through reality testing. Super proposes that individuals strive to implement their occupational self-concept by choosing to enter an occupation that they feel will allow self expression (Osipow, 1983). As Zunker (1981) states, "this vocational self-concept which is only part of the total self-concept, becomes the driving force that establishes a career pattern one will follow throughout life" (p. 10). It is the individual's developmental stage that determines the particular career behaviors that will be engaged in to facilitate the process of implementing this self-concept vocationally (Osipow, 1983). Career choices are ultimately made by the individual then as the means of implementing one's occupational self-concept. Thus, career development becomes the lifelong process of formulating, differentiating, and finally operationalizing it throughout one's career.

The work of Tiedman and associates (Dudey and Tiedman, 1977, Peatley and Tiedman, 1977, Tiedman and Miller-Tiedman, 1977, and Tiedman and O'Hara, 1963 cited in Herr and Cramer, 1992) followed and was somewhat influenced by Super's developmental perspective on career development (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Osipow, 1983; Sharf, 1992). Tiedman's approach, however, was directly influenced by Erickson's (1959 cited in Sharf, 1992) ego development and stages of psychosocial development theory. Zunker (1981) indicates that Tiedman's concept of career development path closely parallels Erickson's stages of psychosocial development.

Similar to Super's, Tiedman's process of career development is essentially linked to the development of self (Zunker, 1981). Couched in the language of Erickson, it is the evolution of the ego identity through the developmental stages that determines the process of career development. As the ego identity develops, possibilities for career decision making emerge as well (Zunker, 1981). The career development goal of the individual is to integrate the self as defined by one's ego identity into society through a career that fosters congruency between one's identity and the workplace (Zunker, 1981).

Tiedman's approach contains a decision-making paradigm. This model focuses on the internal decision-making process involved in career choice. Tiedman has divided this process into two main stages: the anticipation stage and the implementation/adjustment stage. Each stage is composed of several substages beginning with exploration and ending with integration (Herr and Cramer, 1996). These stages are not age related or necessarily sequential but may be present simultaneously as an individual deals with several different career decisions at one time (Sharf, 1992).

Important to Tiedman's approach is the concept of personal and common reality. Sharf (1992) explains that personal reality refers to the individual's own sense of what is an appropriate personal decision. Common reality, on the other hand, depicts what others would deem as appropriate decisions for the individual. Herr and Cramer point out that Tiedman's approach emphasizes the pro-active and empowering role that individuality plays in determining career choice. As such, career development emerges as a function of the internal reality and self awareness of the individual.

Situational/Sociological/Ecological Theories

A major focus in career development literature during recent years has been on theories proposed by those who promote the sociological/situational perspective. This perspective is also referred to by Osipow (1983) as a social systems approach. This approach is concerned with circumstances external to and beyond the control of the individual that act as significant influences on life decisions (Osipow,1983). The underlying assumption of this approach is that various factors associated with one's sociological, cultural, and ecological environments are, over time, major determinants in the development process. Much of the research has concluded that variables such as race, gender, occupation and income of parents, education of parents, place and type of residence, family size, peer values, school environment and community all influence career choice (Lipsett,1962; Blau and Duncan, 1967; Sewell and Shah, 1968; Hotchkiss and Borow, 1990). In fact, Astin (1984), in a study of career choice among women, concluded that social and environmental variables are critically important in both educational and career decisions.

In recognizing the effect of contextual elements upon individual development, this approach does not see career development as a process determined completely by the individual. Instead it is viewed as a comprehensive integrative process shaped in context (Herr, 1996). Gustad, Jessor, Parnes, and Wilcox (1956) cited in Zunker (1981) captured the essence of this view in their statement that "the individual characteristics which are responsible for choice are biologically determined and socially conditioned..."(p. 27). Supporters of the sociological perspective suggest, as well, that an individual's degree of

freedom in choosing a career is quite limited to the boundaries and expectations imposed by the environment (Osipow,1983). For the purpose of this study, this approach provides a useful conceptual framework for understanding the complex nature of career development among adolescents in rural Newfoundland.

The effects of familial social status on occupational decisions, educational aspirations, and overall career development has long been recognized and studied (Borow, 1989; Hotchkiss and Borow, 1990). A study by Rosenberg (1957) concluded that family income influenced student career expectations and choices. The work of Blau and Duncan (1967) found that the father's occupation and education as indicators of family social status were good predictors of a child's first job. Hollender (1972) conducted a study on male high school and college students and discovered that the career interests of high school males are strongly influenced by the mother. Basow and Howe (1979) found that parents played the most influential role in the career choices of 300 college students. Furthermore, Anderson (1980) found that the educational goals of senior high school students were significantly influenced by the educational level of the same-sexed parent. Gottfredson's (1981) cited in Osipow (1983) developmental theory supports the notion that an individual's occupational orientation at the various stages is a function of family social class. With the exception of some studies (Steward, 1969, Mowsesian, 1966, and Mulvey, 1963 cited in Osipow, 1993), the studies cited and others (Hollingshead, 1949; Miller and Form, 1951; Werts, 1968) indicate there is ample evidence in the literature supporting the influential connection between family status and career choice.

A major focal point in the contextual approach literature centered on how the much broader system of social organizations and culture act as influences upon career development and choice. Osipow (1983) suggested that attention to ecological influence on human behavior is critical in determining sociological changes needed to enhance human development. Blau et al. (1956) postulated that career choice is influenced by social structure in the way it affects personality development and shapes the surrounding economic and social conditions that provide opportunities for career choice. In other words, occupational entry is determined in the interplay between personal characteristics on the one hand, and sociological factors affecting opportunities on the other.

Super and Bachrach (1957) postulated in their social systems approach to career development that individual developmental sequence and timing of vocational behavior is determined by the requirements of society. Their viewpoint is representative of those concerned with how one's situational context determines behavior through "environmental press" (Osipow, 1983, p. 247). The salient feature of the ecological approach is in its recognition that career development is shaped by the compromises between individual desires and the opportunities afforded by society (Osipow, 1983).

A major contribution to the literature concerned with the sociological/situational perspective has been that made by Bronfenbrenner. In recognizing the lifelong interactive process between the individual and environment, Bronfenbrenner emphasizes the significant role the environment plays in this process. Unlike earlier approaches that viewed the environment in much narrower and limited terms, his theory envisions the environment in

a broader scope ranging from the immediate surroundings such as home and school to the all encompassing social and cultural systems that together affect human development.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) divides the environment into four interconnected ecological structures that together influence individual and ultimately, his/her career development. These ecological structures are: 1) the microsystem, for example, one's family, school, or workplace that directly influence one's personal development; 2) the mesosystem, comprised of one's connected microsystems; 3) the exosystem encompassing the influences that result from a significant other's microsystems (a parent's workplace, for example); and, 4) the macrosystem, the broader cultural, societal, and national belief systems that inevitably affect individual development.

Of the four structures, the microsystem is the most personally intimate level of one's environment. It is comprised of the activities and relationships that occur within the individual's immediate surroundings. Key to understanding development at this level is the recognition that its relationships are bidirectional and reciprocal and are influenced, as well, by surrounding environmental factors created by the involvement of third parties (Berk, 1997).

Bronfenbrenner's second structure, the mesosystem, is made up of the connections among one's microsystems. These involve interconnections between such microsystems as the home, the school, and the day care center. Parental involvement in school, for example, would constitute a mesosystem for an individual that would affect development (Berk, 1997).

The exosystem refers to those environmental systems that exclude individual

involvement but which influence his or her immediate surroundings. A parent's workplace, for example, through its work schedule arrangements, family care programs, and paid leave policies would be an exosystem that either fostered or deterred childhood development (Berk, 1997).

The broadest structure in Bronfenbrenner's model is the macrosystem. Not defined in specific contextual terms, this system encompasses the systemic domains of society and culture such as values, laws, beliefs, and resources that indirectly, yet powerfully, affect individual development. Berk (1997) points out that the priority given to individual developmental needs and issues by the macrosystem ultimately determines quality of development at the other levels. For example, if a country's government required national emphasis on career development among high school students, then the individual career development process would be enhanced at the microsystem (i.e. school) level.

According to Bronfenbrenner (1989) cited in Berk (1997), the environment is not static but a dynamic, ever changing system. As a result, development is molded by continuously changing conditions. Bronfenbrenner (1995) cited in Berk (1997) recently described his model as bio-ecological in recognition of the fact that individual development is shaped by the interaction of biological and environmental factors. In this light, Bronfenbrenner's theory does not envision development as being determined by either the environment or one's biological disposition alone. Rather, individuals produce, and are products of, their environment (Berk, 1997). For career development purposes then, Bronfenbrenner's model acknowledges that individual self-concepts, values, opportunities,

and career aspirations are ultimately determined by the cumulative effect of the influential interaction between the ecological systems and the individual (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

Berk (1997) points out that Bronfenbrenner's theory is significant for application. Intervention within any of the structures could enhance individual development. Furthermore, effecting change in the macrosystem is most important because it is this structure that ultimately affects all other structures (Bronfenbrenner, 1989 cited in Berk, 1997).

Another perspective of the sociological/situational approach to adolescent career development is that provided by accidental theory which highlights the influence of chance happenings upon career choices. Osipow (1983) argued that a chance theory of career selection would fit more appropriately into the social systems approach than in other approaches because of the emphasis it is given by the sociological perspective.

This theory acknowledges that unforeseen events and chance encounters impact upon career development and choices (Herr and Cramer, 1996). Sharf (1992) states that "chance encounters can play a critical role in determining the course of one's life" (p. 328). Chance events can range from totally unforeseen events such as the sudden death of a loved one or meeting one's future spouse at a dance to events that occur partially under one's control such as listening in on a conversation at a dinner about the opening of a new mine and as a result deciding to become a mining technologist (Cabral and Salamone, 1990). The impact these events may have on an individual is largely determined by the strength of one's self-control and locus of control (Sharf, 1992).

Chance as a factor in determining career choice has been studied in recent years among adolescents and adults (Sharf, 1992). Baumgardner (1982) cited in Cabral and Salamone (1990) found that friends, previous employment experience, and chance circumstances are most frequently involved in the career decision making process of individuals. Ostermen (1989) cited in Sharf (1992) found that because lower level unskilled service jobs provide the most employment opportunities for those entering the workforce (Grubb, 1984 cited in Sharf, 1992), adolescents from low socioeconomic backgrounds aspire to such occupations and usually acquire them through chance encounters. He postulates, as well, that adolescents are especially susceptible to chance events because this period of life is characterized by a lack of conscious career planfulness, and therefore, chance happenings can have a predominant influence upon career choice.

In studying the role of chance among adults, Hart, Rayner, and Christensen (1971) cited in Herr and Cramer (1996) found that chance was a greater determinant for individuals entering unskilled jobs than for those entering professional or skilled occupations. Other research, however, has concluded that personal qualities such as interests, needs, skills, and values determine career patterns more than chance (Salamone and Slaney, 1981; Scott and Hatalla, 1990).

Social Learning Theory

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1984), Krumboltz, Mitchell, and Gelatt (1975, Krumboltz, Mitchell and Jones, 1979, and Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1990) cited in Herr and Cramer

(1996) formulated a social learning theory of career development. Based on the social learning theory of Bandura (1969, 1977) cited in Sharf (1992) that emphasized lifelong learning experiences as major determinants of human behavior. Mitchell and Krumboltz (1984) and Krumboltz et al.(1975, 1979, 1990) cited in Herr and Cramer (1996) proposed that career decisions are determined largely by behavior (actions) and cognitive processes (Sharf, 1992). Mitchell and Krumboltz (1984) maintained that individual personality and behavioral patterns evolve from life's learning experiences instead of from innate psychological or developmental dispositions. These learning experiences are shaped by individual cognitive response to positive and negative reinforcements. Social learning theory, however, does not see humans as being controlled by environment. Rather, as cognitive, problem-solving individuals, they endeavour to understand surrounding reinforcements and thereby control their environments to suit themselves (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

This theory views career development in terms of four factors. They are as follows: 1) genetic endowment that refers to inherited or innate personal characteristics such as physical appearance or personal talents and abilities that have the potential to influence career decision making; 2) environmental conditions and events that include conditions and factors outside the control of the individual that affect career development; 3) learning experiences comprised of one's instrumental, associative, and vicarious learning experiences (Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1984) that result in personal career preferences; and 4) task approach skills gained from learning experiences that occur through the interactions among the other four factors. These skills that are critical to career development include performance standards

and values, work habits, cognitive processes, and emotional responses. Specifically, they involve goal setting, values clarification, generating alternatives, and obtaining career information (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Sharf, 1992; Zunker, 1981; Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1984). Each of the four factors play an important role in guiding the individual towards eventual selection of a specific career path. Sharf (1992) pointed out that when compared to other career development theories, social learning theory is distinguished by its emphasis on the importance of learning experiences and task approach skills in the career development process.

Mitchell and Krumboltz (1984) further clarified their theory by postulating that four kinds of consequences or outcomes result from the interplay of the four factors mentioned above. These consequences help conceptualize the diverse career decision-making paths that individuals pursue. The four consequences are: 1) Self-Observation Generalizations (SOGs) which are covert and overt personal generalization statements about one's perceived and acquired attitudes and skills, and can be about one's task efficacy, interests, and values; 2) World View Generalizations which are more or less accurate observations about the environment that individuals use to predict future and environmental events; 3) Task Approach Skills which are learned cognitive and performance abilities that individuals used in the decision-making process, and are used to cope with the environment, to interpret it in relation to self-observations and world generalizations, and to predict future events; and, 4) Actions which are actual behaviors engaged in that indicate progression towards a career decision (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1984).

The social learning model of career development accentuates the impact of prior learning experiences upon the development of these four outcomes and ultimately upon career decision-making. Krumboltz, Mitchell, and Gelatt (1976) cited in Herr and Cramer (1992) summed it up in the following statement:

> It is the sequential cumulative effects of numerous learning experiences affected by various environmental circumstances and the individual's cognitive and emotional reactions to these learning experiences and circumstances that cause a person to make decisions to enroll in a certain educational program or become employed in a particular occupation. (p. 176).

Consequently, career selection is not simply a function of individual choice. It also involves complex environmental factors that influence career decision-making. According to this theory, such factors can be learned and with the acquisition of effective decision making skills, the career development process can be controlled (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

In its practical application, the strength of Krumboltz's theory lies in its intervening ability to help individuals deal with problems arising from faulty or inaccurate self-observations, generalizations, or environmental interpretations (Herr and Cramer, 1996). Faulty beliefs can be identified, acted upon, and corrected through various cognitive methods (Krumboltz, 1983 cited in Herr and Cramer, 1996; Mitchell and Krumboltz, 1984). The social learning theory proposed by Krumboltz and associates is considered an important and extensive contribution to the professional literature because of the insight it has brought to

the various factors of the career development process (Herr and Cramer, 1996).

The literature pointed out both strengths and weaknesses of the Social Learning approach to career development. One of its strengths is the explicit way its theoretical objectives and means of accomplishing them are delineated (Osipow, 1983). As well, when compared to other approaches, its greater degree of emphasis on environmental and social influences is recognized as a strength (Osipow, 1983; Herr and Cramer, 1996).

A shortage of recent validating data along with few new methods to accomplish its objectives are posited in the literature as weaknesses in this approach (Osipow, 1983). Additionally, another of its shortcomings comes from its lack of focus on individual adjustment to occupational choice due to overemphasis on the choice itself (Osipow, 1983)

A more recent perspective that has grown out of Social Learning theory is Self-Efficacy theory proposed by Bandura (1977, 1982) cited in Herr and Cramer (1996) and later applied to career development theory by Betz and Hackett (1981,1983) cited in Osipow (1983). Based on the assumption that cognitive processes facilitate behavior, Self-Efficacy theory is concerned with personal beliefs about one's capability to perform given behaviors. Successful behavioral performance depends on the level and strength of one's self-efficacy beliefs (Osipow, 1983). Such beliefs are derived from performance accomplishments, vicarious learning experiences, social persuasion, and physiological states and reactions (Lent and Brown, 1996).

As mentioned earlier, Hackett and Betz (1981) cited in Osipow (1983) and Betz and Hackett (1983) cited in Osipow (1983) applied Self-Efficacy theory in studying the career

development of women to help understand occupational choice differences between males and females. Based on their findings, Osipow (1983) suggested that the level and strength of self-efficacy as a career development factor appears to be a function of role modelling and reinforcement.

In more recent professional literature on career development, self-efficacy has become recognized as an important factor in Social Learning approaches to career development. In particular, it is the Social Cognitive Career theory that has integrated this variable as an essential component of its theoretical framework. This theory that will be examined in the proceeding section.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

A more recent theoretical framework of career development that has evolved from general Social Learning theory is called Social Cognitive Career theory or SCCT. Developed and explained by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994, 1996) cited in Lent and Brown (1996), this theory has integrated various career development concepts from other theories into a comprehensive framework as a means of complementing and linking conceptually with already existant career development theories (Lent and Brown, 1996). Its underlying assumption is grounded in constructivism. This philosophical stance assumes that humans are active influencers of both their personal development and environments (Mahoney and Patterson, 1992 cited in Lent and Brown, 1996). As applied by Social Cognitive theorists, individuals are envisioned as active agents in guiding their own career development.

The theory has conceptualized a reciprocally influential relationship between the social cognitive variables (self-efficacy, outcomes expectations, and personal goals) and the various aspects of individuals and their environments. Operating in tandem, these dynamically influenced variables act as regulators of career behavior in an individual (Lent and Brown, 1996). Vocational interests, choices, and performances are ultimately shaped in the interplay between these variables. Lent and Brown (1996) has stated that their "theory building effort is intended to help explain individual variability in career interest, choice, and performance" (p. 320).

This concludes the first part of this chapter which reviewed selected career development theories. The next part of this chapter reviews the literature on rural life and career development among rural youth.

Definition of Rural

There is considerable variation in the literature as to how rural is defined. In fact, the literature (Beaker, Willits, and Kuvlesky, 1965; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Neubert and Leconte, 1990 cited in Sarkees, 1990) differentiates rural settings from urban ones along the lines of economic, ecological, and sociocultural variables. Some researchers (for example, Khattri, Riley, and Kane, (1997)) use the degree of isolation from urban areas to determine rural locales. Others (Bealer et al., 1965; Sanders, 1977) have used an occupational construct to define rural society as comprised of all those engaged in a common occupational area such as agriculture or fishing which require direct contact with the natural elements. Agencies such as the U. S. Bureau of the Census have defined rural areas as those that are not metropolitan with metropolitan defined as counties with a city of at least 50,000 population and may include counties with strong social and economic ties to the central county (Sherman, 1992 cited in Conrad, 1997). Thus, an area is considered rural if it is not in a metropolitan county (Conrad, 1997). The result of such variation is that a single, widely accepted definition of rural does not exist.

Some of the literature (Gans, 1962 cited in Yang, 1981b) pointed out that the differences that distinguish rural from urban have become increasingly difficult to identify in modern society. In fact, they argued that very few differences actually exist between urban and rural populations. Hobbs (1994) and Rojewski, Wicklein, and Schell (1995) noted that technological and metropolitan expansion along with other changes in the global economy over recent years have so profoundly affected society socially, economically, and

demographically that rural and urban has lost much of its meaning. To indicate just how blurred these differences have become, Hobbs (1994) further suggested that the difference between past and present definitions of rural would be greater than the present difference between definitions of rural and urban.

Although there is little debate that the impact of modern society has decreased the differential gap between urban and rural, the extent to which this gap has closed is debatable (Glenn and Hill, 1978 cited in Yang, 1981b). Without a doubt, however, rural to urban differences will always exist in modern society and new ones will be created thus ensuring that rural life will continue to be a significant part of Canadian life in the future (Glenn and Hill, 1978 cited in Yang, 1981b; House, 1989).

Various social scientists have attempted to explain the factors involved in creating the differences and similarities between rural and urban areas as well as the process whereby each influences and changes the other (Sanders, 1977). One explanation that addresses the differences is called the Dichotomous Approach. Proponents of this view champion one way of living over the other. Inevitably, such an approach lends itself to the use of value judgements to the point of judging each way of life as either good or bad (Sanders, 1977).

Other social scientists, however, have recognized the overlapping similarities between urban and rural by differentiating the two extremes on a continuum. This approach proposes that most communities fall into stages between typological extremes (Sanders, 1977). One such continuum has been the Gemeinschaft (community)- Gesellschaft (society) proposed by the German sociologist, Ferdinand Tonnes. Gemeinschaft refers to social groups defined

by friendship, neighborhood, and family relationships that are valued as ends in themselves. Gesellschaft, however, would be typified by more impersonal and socially disconnected relationships that are formed out of necessity to achieve an end. On this contiuum, rural communities would fall closer to the Gemeinschaft extreme (Sanders, 1977). Rogers and Burdge (1972) also argued for the necessity of a continuum in attempting to define rural. They asserted that purely rural and urban communities do not exist. Instead, they proposed that communities can be ranged on a rural-urban continuum indicating the degree of rural and urban differences. The degree of ruralness or urbanness is determined by population size and density in conjunction with the strength of rural and urban norms. As such, rural culture could exist in highly urban centers.

Another view called the Symbiotic Approach has avoided focusing on the differences between rural and urban. Instead, emphasis is on the mutually interdependent relationship created between them. Since rural and urban are understood to be necessary for the existence of each other, this approach emphasizes the symbiotic relationship that emerges between two distinct ways of life to create a national society (Sanders, 1977).

Sanders (1977) asserted that rural society can only be defined in terms of its integrated components. Since rural society is an abstraction, it can be differentiated from urban society through analysis of what he calls the "rural individual", the "rural family" and the "local community". These aspects which do exist give rural society a tangible reality.

Despite the criticism against it (Khattri et al.,1997; Parks,1983), the most frequently mentioned definition of rural in the literature is based on the population size and density of

community (Biggs and Bollman, 1991; Gower,1990; House, 1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Khattri et al.,1997; Parks,1983). Different countries set population aggregates varying in size from 1000 to 5000 as the cutoff points between rural and nonrural (Sanders, 1977). The U. S. Census Bureau designated communities with a population less than 2500 as being rural (Khattri, Riley, and Kane, 1997). Although Statistics Canada did not define rural, urban areas were defined as those main labour markets for urbanized core populations of 10,000 and over. All other farm and nonfarm populations outside and on the fringes of such urbanized cores were considered rural (Biggs and Bollman, 1991; Gower, 1990; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992). For purposes of their study of career related needs of rural Newfoundland youth, Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache (1992) defined rural in terms of population. Using the guidelines of the 1986 Census of Canada, Newfoundland Statistics and Rural, Agriculture, and Northern Development agencies, rural was defined as communities with a population of 5000, or less. Accordingly, the 1986 Census of Canada revealed that the majority of Newfoundland's population (58%) lived in rural communities (House, 1989).

Over recent decades, both Canada and the U.S. have experienced a growth in their rural populations (Biggs and Bollman, 1991; Parks, 1983). Using the U.S. Bureau of Census definition of rural, aproximately one quarter of the U.S. population can now be considered rural (Murray and Keller, 1991 cited in Conrad, 1997). Biggs and Bollman (1991) indicated that in Canada, rural growth rates from 1971 to 1976 narrowly exceeded urban growth rates. They further pointed out that from 1971 to 1986 Canada underwent a significant urban to rural migration that resulted in a net gain in the rural population. According to the 1986

Census of Canada statistics, aproximately one quarter (24%) of the country's population lived in rural communities of less than 1000 (Biggs and Bollman, 1991; House, 1989). It is quite clear that Canada has a rural population that has constituted a significant part of national life.

Distinguishing Features of Rural Communities

In differentiating rural from urban settings, the literature highlighted various factors that are distinguishing features of rural settings. This section will examine the literature with respect to some of these features under the following headings: Demographic Features, Economic Features, Social Features, and Cultural Features.

Demographic Features

A review of the literature clearly indicated that rural communities are relatively small places with populations ranging less than 5000 in Canada (House, 1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992) and less than 2500 in the U. S. (Khattri et al., 1997; Parks, 1983; Sweeney, 1971). The 1986 Census of Canada indicated that within this spectrum, 3% of Canadian rural communities had populations between 2,500 and 4,999, 2.7% had populations between 1,000 and 2,499, and 23.5% had populations less than 1,000 (House, 1989). The same census revealed that 9.1% of rural communities in Newfoundland had populations between 2,500 and 4,999, 7.8% had populations between 1,000 and 2,499, and 41.1% had populations less than 1,000 (House, 1989). Statistics for both Canada and Newfoundland clearly indicated

that the majority of rural communities can be classified as places with small populations.

Despite the fact that both Canada and the U. S. experienced a slight increase in rural growth due to a period of urban to rural migration (Biggs and Bollman, 1991; Parks, 1983), rural communities are noted for their static or declining populations (Editorial in The Telegram, Nov. 5, 1998; Jansen and Rude, 1964 cited in Sweeney,1971). A comparison of the 1981 and 1986 census of Canada, for example, indicated that the overall rural populations for both Canada and Newfoundland remained relatively unchanged over that period (House, 1989). Furthermore, statistics for all rural communities on Newfoundland's Great Northern Peninsula revealed that their populations remained relatively stable with slight increases and decreases over the years from 1981 to 1986. Only one community experienced a 42% decline in its population (House, 1989). More recent statistics from 1991 to 1996 indicated that rural Newfoundland communities have experienced declining populations due to migration to urban centers as well as outmigration to places outside the province (Editorial in The Telegram, November 5, 1998).

High levels of outmigration, especially among rural youth who aspire to further their educational and occupational goals is another distinguishing feature of rural communities (Bowles, 1965; Editorial in The Telegram, November 5, 1998; Hobbs, 1994; House, 1986, 1989; Swift, 1988; Taues and Caller, 1964, Yoesting et al.,1968 cited in Dunne, 1980a). Hobbs (1994) in analyzing the demographic trends in American nonmetropolitan communities noted that such communities are marked by the outmigration of their more highly educated youth in pursuit of educational and occupational opportunities. It has been

postulated that the large number of "at-risk" students found in rural settings is due partially to the highly transient population characteristic of such places (Neubert and Leconte, 1990 cited in Sarkees, 1990). In a study of migration and economic life in small Canadian communities, House (1989) pointed out that one of the outstanding features in Canada has been the shift from rural to urban communities. In fact, a comparison of the 1991 and 1996 census of Canada showed that a rural to urban population shift has occurred and continues in Newfoundland during the present decade (Editorial in The Telegram, November 5, 1998). House (1989) also noted that in the two Newfoundland rural communities studied, three quarters of the migrants were the sons and daughters of the locals and a slightly higher percentage of more educated people were among the out migrants than within the local population. He concluded that rural young people have to leave their home communities if they aspire to upward social mobility.

Haller and Monk (1992) cited in Ley et al. (1996) argued that structural aspects of rural schools and communities such as degree of isolation and ruralness coupled with student individual traits such as intelligence level are the primary determinants for the outmigration of rural youth. They also discovered that rural people believe their schools should prepare students to leave the community to pursue educational and career opportunities in metropolitan areas.

Ley et al. (1996) asserted that the high level of outmigration among rural youth is indicative of the fewer economic opportunities in rural communities, a lack of faith in the ability of rural communities to provide satisfactory economic conditions, and the willingness

of rural youth to move elsewhere for opportunities. A study of high school seniors in a rural community of Utah found, however, that close to 80% of the students surveyed intended to migrate to urban centers after graduation regardless of job availability in their rural area (Seyfrit, 1986 cited in Swift, 1988). The researcher concluded that "rural youth may be so prone to migrate after high school graduation that economic opportunities have little to do with their migration decision" (Seyfrit, 1986 cited in Swift, 1988, p. 7).

Other distinguishing features of rural locales noted in the literature included the following: a homogeneous population and culture (Bealer, 1965; Jeffery, Hache, and Lehr, 1995; Sher, 1977 cited in McCracken et al., 1991); families that are typically larger than urban counterparts (Ford, 1978; Sanders, 1977); a high proportion of unskilled, low paying, low status jobs (Hobbs, 1994; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Rich, 1979; Rojewski et al., 1995; Sweeney, 1971); a high percentage of families with low income levels (Conroy, 1997; Ford, 1978; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Moore, 1983; Swanson and Butler, 1988 cited in Haller and Virkler, 1993; Sweeney, 1971); low levels of educational attainment among the adult population (Conrad, 1997; Ford, 1978; House, 1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Sweeney, 1971); high poverty rates (Ford, 1978; Hobbs, 1994; Neubert and Leconte, 1990 cited in Sarkees, 1990); and a lack of human resource services and material resources needed for an acceptable standard of living (Dunne, 1979; Helge, 1984, 1991; McCracken and Odell, 1988 cited in Rojewski, 1995; Phelps, Raftery, Mulkey, and McNamara, 1990 cited in Rehm and Reagor, 1993; Rojewski, 1993 cited in Rojewski, 1994; Sarkees, 1990; Sweeney, 1971).

In summary, a selected review of the literature highlighted smaller, static, or declining populations, high levels of migration, particularly among the younger population, and among other things, a high proportion of low paying and low status jobs as some of the more salient demographic features of rural communities. The next section will attempt to highlight some of the distinguishing economic features of rural settings.

Economic Features

A survey of the literature revealed that the economic structure and atmosphere of rural communities help to distinguish them from urban settings (Cahill and Martland, 1993, 1996; Cosby and McDermott, 1978 cited in Dunne, 1980a; Helge, 1991 cited in Rojewski, 1995; House, 1986,1989; Kuvlesky, 1973 cited in Dunne, 1980a; Rojewski, 1994a). Rural communities are recognized as having more narrowly specialized and limited economies than urban centers because of the dependance on the natural resources of the land and sea for economic activity (Bealer, 1965; Cahill and Martland, 1993, 1996; Carlson et al., 1981, McGranahan, 1988, Howley, 1989, and Reid, 1989 cited in Haller and Virkler, 1993; Cosby and McDermott, 1978, and Kuvlesky, 1973 cited in Dunne, 1980a; Haller and Virkler, 1993; House, 1986, 1989). House (1994) described rural economies such as those in rural Newfoundland as being resource-based, government dependent, and corporation controlled resulting in low productivity and high unemployment. Such economies make rural communities vulnerable to changing market cycles (Clemenson, 1992 cited in Cahill and Martland, 1996) and the decisions of large corporations (Saunders, 1998).

Given this economic context, the rural labour market has been defined by a more limited number and narrower range of occupational opportunities than that of urban settings (Ehrensaft and Beeman, 1992 cited in Cahill and Martland, 1996; Haller and Virkler, 1993; Helge, 1991 cited in Rojewski, 1994b; House, 1986, 1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992; Rojewski, 1994). Furthermore, the opportunities that are available are, for the most part, unskilled, low status, and low paying jobs (Cosby and Charner, 1978, Lipset and Bendix, 1959, and Taylor and Jones, 1963 cited in Dunne, 1980a; Hobbs, 1994; Rich, 1979; Rojewski et al., 1995). Added to this was the fact that many of these jobs are of a seasonal nature, a typical employment reality of rural communities, especially in Newfoundland (House, 1986,1989).

Given their economic structure, rural communities have become characterized in the literature as places with high unemployment rates (Gower, 1990; House, 1986,1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992, 1995; Keller, 1980; Neubert and Leconte, 1990 cited in Sarkees, 1990; Pollard and O'Hare, 1990 cited in Conrad, 1997; Rojewski et al., 1995; Sarkees, 1990). Rural students, for example, experience more unemployment than those from urban and suburban schools (Pollard and O'Hare, 1990; cited in Conrad, 1997). Keller (1980) in a study of career education within the rural Appalachian region of the U. S. found a high rate of unemployment among the youth of the area. Likewise, Sarkees (1990) in a study of the needs of rural "at- risk" learners described rural settings in the U.S as places where unemployment among those in the 18 to 20 age group is a major human resource problem. Statistics on regional unemployment in rural Canada for 1988 revealed a significantly high

unemployment rate of 19.2% for rural Newfoundland, the highest rate of any region (Gower, 1990). The 1986 Census of Canada statistics indicated that all communities on the Great Northern Peninsula of Newfoundland experienced high rates of unemployment ranging from a low of 10% to a high of 78% (1986 Labor Force, Particular Rates, Unemployment Rates for Census Division 9; Census of Canada cited in House, 1989). House (1986, 1989) noted that the seasonal nature of paid employment opportunities found in rural Newfoundland communities accounted for the high percentage of the eligible workforce that is unofficially unemployed at any given time of the year. He observed as well, that for parts of the year, most of the rural labor force is unemployed , an accepted reality of present day rural life.

As mentioned in the previous section, low family income levels and a higher prevalence of family poverty have been pointed out in the literature as characteristic of rural economic reality (Ford, 1978; Hobbs, 1991). A substantial number of researchers (Elliot, 1987; Hobbs, 1994; Lam, Chan, Parker, and Carter, 1987 cited in Rojewski, 1994b; Lipset, 1955 cited in Hall et al., 1995; Rojewski et al., 1995; Rowjewski, 1994a; Rojewski, 1994b; Sarkees, 1990) asserted the notion that rural areas were by and large economically disadvantaged compared to urban areas resulting in less capability to provide services deemed essential for modern day living.

It was noted, however, that the differences between rural and urban economic structures should not be interpreted as economic inferiority in rural areas. Haller and Virkler (1993) argued that even though rural economies differ in many ways from urban economies, such differences do not necessarily mean rural areas are deficient. This argument was

supported in literature on Newfoundland rural life. Even though some indicators of poor economic conditions exist in rural Newfoundland communities when using official standards, these communities actually have unique economic strengths that provide for an acceptable standard of modern living comparable to that found in urban centers (Cahill and Martland, 1993; House, 1986; 1989). House (1989) in his report on a study of life in two Newfoundland rural communities pointed out that the household, not the individual, was the basic economic unit of rural communities in Newfoundland. Qualities such as flexibility, adaptability, and the ability to use a variety of means for maximizing household income were evidences of economic strengths exhibited by rural households (House, 1989). By combining various sources of household income with the economic value of unpaid household production activities, many rural Newfoundland families have managed to remain in their communities and maintain a middle class standard of living (House, 1989 cited in Cahill, 1992a).

Social Features

Rural areas have identifiable features in their social structures that differentiate them from urban social structures. Cahill and Martland (1993) identified more generalized social roles and a tendency towards egalitarianism and cooperation as distinguishing features of the social makeup of rural communities. Compared to urban populations, rural places appear to have more easily identified social networks (Kenkel, 1985 cited in Jeffery et al., 1995). As well, the social networking of rural communities provides for a way of life that is based more

on interdependence rather than independence (Jansen and Rude, 1964 cited in Sweeney, 1971).

Rural communities are noted for their close social relationships (Sanders, 1977). Specifically, rural communities have been characterized as having close-knit families (House,1986, 1989; Jansen and Rude, 1964 cited in Sweeney, 1971; Jeffery et al., 1995; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986) as well as close community relationships (Larson, 1978 cited in Dunne 1979; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986). Bealer et al. (1965) described rural relationships as being predominantly face to face. House (1989) found that each of the two rural communities in his study had close-knit relationships with many kinship and marriage ties among the families. A survey of the residents from both communities revealed, as well, that some of the advantages in rural living were family and kin ties, as well as friends and neighbours.

Such networks of close relationships have been recognized as supportive of rural culture and youth. It has been postulated that the strong network of intergenerational relationships characteristic of rural communities serves to transmit the shared values and attitudes of the community (Hektner,1995) and at the same time provides the sense of comfort, security, and support needed by its youth (Schneider and Borman, 1993 cited in Hektner, 1995; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986). Furthermore, the closeness of rural family life has been credited with making a positive contribution to the success of rural youth (Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986). In describing the life of poor families in rural areas, Sweeney (1971) stated that "many economically disadvantaged families enjoy family relationships and

common values which can help students transcend the conditions of poverty" (p. 2).

Within the social framework of the rural community, gender roles are largely perceived and well defined in traditional ways (Conrad, 1997; Dunne, 1980a; Flora and Johnson, 1978 cited in Dunne, 1979). Household activities such as child raising, cooking, cleaning, sewing, and helping with work outside the home are considered female roles in rural settings while providing for the family financially, maintaining the family dwelling, and hunting for food are viewed as male roles (Conrad, 1997; Ford, 1978; Farmer and Associates, 1997). Dunne (1979) indicated that research has found that rural women share a more conservative orientation towards sex roles and appropriate lifestyles than their urban counterparts. It has also been proposed that it is the roles performed by rural women that make them more family oriented than their urban counterparts (Flora and Johnson, 1978 cited in Dunne, 1979). Furthermore, rural women are also more involved in community institutions such as the church and school that by and large uphold such traditional values and roles (Dunne, 1979).

Cultural Features

It is widely recognized by the literature that cultural differences exist between rural and urban settings. Since geography is one of the defining factors for rural areas throughout Canada, it is recognized that cultural differences do exist on that basis (Cahill and Martland, 1994). Some isolated rural groups throughout the U. S. and Canada such as the Amish, the Hutterites, and the Mennonites, for instance, have such a unique and distinct clustering of

values that they have become set apart as cultural islands (Ford, 1978). Within mainstream society, however, other rural populations have value patterns and other cultural distinctions that distinguish them from other populations (Ford, 1978).

One of the more distinguishing features of rural culture mentioned in the literature is the conservative approach that rural people have towards life. They have been noted as being the most conservative and traditional people in society (Dunne, 1985). Rural populations hold conservative views and norms regarding politics, morality, family life and appropriate behaviour for women (Larson, 1978; Sher, 1977 cited in McCracken et al., 1991). Larson (1978), for example, noted that rural populations have high levels of commitment to the more puritanical ethical standards of conservative morality. He found that results from the U. S. national Gallop poll surveys conducted between 1965 and 1975 indicated that rural people were markedly more conservative than urbanites in their views on such issues as divorce, contraception, abortion, and premarital sex (Larson, 1978). As well, one of the characteristics noted about rural women is that they share a conservative orientation towards sex roles and appropriate lifestyles (Dunne, 1979).

Rural youth have also been found to have a conservative and traditional orientation towards life (Glenn and Alston, 1967 cited in Kuvlesky, 1973). Willets and Bealer (1963 cited in Kuvlesky, 1973) in a study of Pennsylvania youth found that those from rural communities were more conservative in their views than their urban peers. A U. S. national study sample of youth moving out of high school revealed that rural youth had more traditional sex-role orientations than those from urban areas (Yang, 1981b). Stevens and

Mason (1994) in their research on occupational choice among rural youth in Australia found that these students often made very traditional career choices.

The conservative orientation of rural people is further demonstrated in a more traditional way of doing things and a greater resistance to change (Bealer et al., 1965). Jansen and Rude (1964) cited in Sweeney (1971) asserted that rural people hold on to traditional ways of meeting problems. Ford (1978) reiterated a similar point by noting that rural people tend to cling longer to old ideas while resisting those that are new. One reason offered for such behavior was that the lower size, density, and diversity of rural populations does not provide the "critical mass" of support needed for new ideas to be accepted and for change to occur (Fischer, 1975 cited in Ford, 1978). Boyd and Immegart (1977) cited in McCracken et al.(1991) argued that change in rural areas is difficult due to isolation, traditional and localized values, and the scarcity of resources.

Rural communities are also recognized as being more religious than urban centers (Larson, 1978; Ford, 1978; Jansen and Rude, 1964 cited in Sweeney, 1971). Jansen and Rude (1964) cited in Sweeney (1971) concluded that the high percentage of churchgoers in rural U. S. communities indicated they have more religious people than urban communities. According to the U. S. national Gallup poll survey (1965-1975) results, rural people differ from others in their faith in religion and religious beliefs. To a greater extent, rural people believe religion is relevant to modern living and can solve all or most of society's problems (Larson, 1978). Nelson, Yokley, and Madron (1971) cited in Larson (1978) found in a study on the association of orthodox religious beliefs with place of residence that 65% of the rural

residents held orthodox beliefs compared to 40% of urban residents.

A high level of religiosity among rural youth was mentioned as one notable difference found between urban and rural youth (Rogers, Burdge , Korshing, and Donnermeyer, 1988 cited in Haller and Virkler, 1993). It has also been postulated that rural women are disadvantaged in their career development due to occupational sex-role stereotyping, resulting from growing up in communities steeped in the traditions of religious subcultures (Dunne, 1980a).

Although rural and urban populations share many common values (Larson, 1978; Rogers and Burdge, 1972), it is the different emphasis placed on such values that distinguishes rural from urban settings. Rural people, for example, are known to place great meaning on work (Cahill and Martland, 1993; Conrad, 1997; Larson, 1978; Rehm and Reagor, 1993; Van Es and Brown, 1974 cited in Larson, 1978; Williams, 1970 cited in Larson, 1978). Van Es and Brown (1974) cited in Larson (1978) found job attachment to be significantly higher among open-country and small village people in the U. S. than among those living in larger places with populations up to 45,000. In rural places, where work includes unpaid as well as paid labour, the value of hard work is heightened by the significant contribution it makes to the financial well-being of the household as well as the elevated status given to the hard working individual within the community. The result is high work salience among rural people (Cahill and Martland, 1993).

Rural populations also place great importance on the family (Sanders, 1977; Conrad, 1997; House, 1989). Family ties and relationships have been viewed by rural people as one

of the advantages of rural life (House, 1989). Conrad (1997) found from her research with rural men and women that the desire to stay close to the family was reason enough to turn down career promotions, relocations, and even quit jobs. Such loyalty to family and willingness to place family before individual interests may arise out of the religious beliefs that influence rural life (Sanders, 1977).

Egalitarianism, cooperation and friendship are valued life principles that appear to be evident more in rural rather than urban communities (Cahill and Martland, 1993; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986; Vidich and Bensman, 1958 cited in Rogers and Burdge, 1972). Vaughn and Vaughn (1986) asserted that rural youth have a definite advantage in the workplace because they rate high in cooperativeness and friendship, desirable qualities in the world of work. In an investigation of power holders in a rural village in New York, village residents claimed that equality and neighborliness were two of the advantages of rural life over city life (Vidich and Bensman, 1958 cited in Rogers and Burdge, 1972).

Humanitarianism has been cited in the literature as an important value in rural areas (Larson, 1978). This is quite often demonstrated in the generosity of rural people in helping people in distress (Williams, 1970 cited in Larson, 1978). The humanitarian focus upheld in rural life has also been found in rural youth who have demonstrated sensitivity to injustice and more interest in people and their activities rather than things (Kleinsasser, 1986).

The quality of life offered by rural communities has also been recognized as important to rural people. Privacy, outdoor life, less crowded space, environmental cleanliness, and freedom were highlighted by rural people as reasons for choosing to live in a rural setting

(Rogers and Burdge, 1972). Residents of smaller, more rural places also express greater satisfaction with their communities than larger communities residents (Hummon, 1992 cited in Hektner, 1995; Larson, 1978). Attachment to rural community living is especially strong among rural youth. This has been demonstrated by the large number of rural young people who have decided to live in their home communities after getting an education even if it means driving long distances to work in another town (Hektner, 1995).

Fatalism is another value that has been ascribed to rural people (Bealer, Willits, and Kuvlesky , 1965; Sanders, 1977). Largely influenced by their religious orientation, rural people are thought to generally believe that life's events and circumstances are beyond human control. As a result, such a belief can act as a barrier to rural people engaging in any process to effect change for themselves (Sanders, 1977).

The atmosphere of rural communities is noticeably different from that of urban communities. The rural climate has been characterized in the literature as being relaxed, friendly, and warm (Swift, 1988; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986).

Career Development in Rural Areas

A limited amount of research has been done over the years regarding the career development of rural youth (Conrad, 1997). From what has been done, most findings indicate that differences do exist between rural and urban individuals with respect to various aspects of career development. The literature (for example, Cobb, McIntire, and Pratt, 1989; Murray, Keller, McMorran, and Edwards, 1983 cited in Conrad, 1997; Pollard and O'Hare,

1990; U.S. Department of Education, 1994 cited in Conrad, 1997) has revealed that significant differences exist between the educational and occupational experiences of rural and urban youth. Research findings have indicated that a substantially higher percentage of rural students enrol in non-college oriented high school courses than those in college preparation courses and rural students on the average take less math and science courses, attain less formal education, are employed less, and earn less income than their urban counterparts (Pollard and O'Hare, 1990; Rojewski, 1990; U.S. Department of Education, 1994 cited in Conrad, 1997). As well, rural high school seniors value their part-time jobs more than their academic course work and are more likely than their urban peers to anticipate entering the work force immediately following high school graduation (Cobb, McIntire, and Pratt, 1989; Engels and Bonk, 1980). Studies (Brown, 1995, and Aylesworth and Bloom, 1976 cited in Swift, 1988) have also found that rural students who pursue higher education have higher attrition rates than urban students. It has been noted in the literature that no differences exist between the intellectual and academic performance of rural and urban students and therefore does not account for such discrepancies (Aylesworth and Bloom, 1976 cited in Swift, 1988; Boak and Boak, 1989; U.S. Department of Education cited in Conrad, 1997).

A significant amount of research has investigated the educational and occupational aspirations of rural and urban youth. Many of the studies (Barcinas, 1989 cited in McCracken et al., 1991; Boak and Boak, 1989; Cobb, McIntire, and Pratt, 1989; Cobb and MacBrayne, 1990 cited in Hollihan and Spain, 1995; Conrad, 1997; Edington, 1970, Hansen

and McIntire, 1989, Monk and Haller, 1986, Ohlendorf and Rafferty, 1982 cited in Haller and Virkler, 1993; Haas, 1992 cited in Ley et al., 1996; Haller and Virkler, 1993; Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell, 1992; McCracken and Barcinas, 1991; Middleton and Grigg, 1959 cited in Apostal and Bilden, 1991; Rojewski, 1995; Sewell, 1964, 1965 cited in Sweeney, 1971; Sewell and Orenstein, 1965) have found that rural students have lower educational and occupational aspirations than their urban counterparts. According to the U. S. Department of Education, in 1980, significantly fewer rural students planned on attaining a university degree compared to urban and suburban students while a higher number aspired towards some other form of post-secondary education (Conrad, 1997). Research on the career aspirations of secondary high school girls in Newfoundland found that those from rural communities aspired to a narrower range of careers that were of lower status while those from urban communities aspired to a much broader range of careers that were of higher status (Boak and Boak, 1989). Other researchers have postulated that rural youth exhibit lower aspirations for post secondary education, high level professional jobs, and earning high salaries than their metropolitan counterparts (Haas, 1992 cited in Ley et al., 1996; Haller and Virkler, 1993; McCracken and Barcinas, 1991).

Other research, however, has been posited in the literature that argued that little, if any, difference has been found to exist between urban and rural youth with respect to educational and occupational aspirations (Rojewski, 1995). Research by Haller and Virkler (1993) showed a small discrepancy between the educational aspirations of their rural and urban students. They concluded that half of this difference was attributed to socioeconomic

status rather than place of residence. Others have argued that most rural youth do not have low educational and occupational aspirations and expectations. Research (Kuvlesky, 1973; Lever and Kuvlesky, 1969, Pelham,1969, Picou and Cosby, 1971, and Thomas, 1970 cited in Kuvlesky, 1973) among rural students revealed that a majority desired college degrees, all aspired to at least formal vocational training or junior college, and most expected to have either a professional, semi-professional, or technical type of job. Studies (Slocum, 1968 cited in Kuvlesky, 1973) on students from Washington and Texas found that the educational goals of rural students in these studies were not lower than those of the urban students. In fact, Kuvlesky (1973) argued that rural youth have high educational and occupational aspirations and ambitions for social advancement that are comparable to those of urban youth. An exception was that lower levels of aspirations and expectations were found to exist among some minorities of disadvantaged rural youth (Kuvlesky et al., 1971, and Picou and Cosby, 1971 cited in Kuvlesky, 1973).

Other researchers (Chu and Culbertson, 1983, Kammer, 1985, Schwazzweller, 1976, Thomas and Falk, 1978 cited in Apostal and Bilden, 1991; Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981) have acknowledged that even though some differences in career aspirations may exist between rural and urban youth, there is growing evidence that the gap is closing with the rising educational and occupational aspirations of rural youth. For example, Schwazzweller (1976 cited in Apostal and Bilden, 1991) found an increase in the number of rural students aspiring to further education. Apostal and Bilden (1991) in their 1988 study of the educational and occupational aspirations of students from three rural high schools in North

Dakota found their participants held high educational and occupational goals for themselves. They asserted that the widely held belief that rural high school students have lower aspirations than urban students could not be assumed. They further argued that the high aspirations of rural youth suggest that perceived rural limitations may be less related to aspirations than first believed. It was pointed out by others, however, that despite high aspirations, the attainment levels for such students are still low (Cosby and Charner, 1978 and Thomas and Falk, 1976 cited in Dunne, Elliot, and Block, 1980; Kuvlesky,1973).

The literature (Hall et al.,1995; Rojewski et al., 1995) pointed out other differences that exist between the career development experiences of rural and urban youth. Hall et al.(1995) discovered that the rural students they studied demonstrated low interest in investigative and social occupations, areas that are expected to experience significant job growth in the next decade. Rojewski et al. (1995) found that some rural students were less career mature and less mature in career competence than their metropolitan peers.

Several explanations have been put forward in the literature to account for the lower educational and occupational aspirations and attainments of rural students. One explanation centers around the conflict that many rural youth experience when career decisions require moving away from their home communities. Several studies (Donaldson, 1986, Ovando, 1984, Condon,1988, and Schonert-Reichl and Elliot, 1995 cited in Hektner, 1995; Hektner, 1995; Sarigiani, Wilson, Patersen, and Vicary, 1990) have concluded that such conflict does exist. Despite the limitations of rural communities, many rural students aspire to educational and career goals that require moving away from the people and places to which they are

attached. Consequently, conflict results from this perceived incompatibility of their aspirations with their desire to stay in their rural environment (Hektner, 1995). Hektner (1995) in a study of 918 high school students from three midwestern school districts found a greater prevalence of potential conflict among rural students between their perceived importance of staying at home in their communities and their desire to achieve economic security by moving away. Rojewski et al.(1995) have argued that such conflict interferes with the career development of rural youth. The consequences of such conflict upon the career development process of these youth are: lower educational aspirations, planned delays in attending college, career indecision, and greater difficulty in formulating definite educational and career plans (Hektner, 1995; Rojewski et al., 1995).

The irrelevance of the educational curriculum to rural life is another reason suggested for the lower aspirations of rural youth. Schlichter (1981) cited in Kleinsasser (1986) noted that rural youth tend to become frustrated with the educational programs because they are viewed as not relevant to their interests and environment. House (1989) proposed that in rural settings formal education is seen as irrelevant to the basic economic adaptation of most rural households. Since post secondary education is not considered necessary to work in a sawmill, a fish plant, or any other job connected with natural resource industries, students in rural places aspire towards and attain less formal education.

Based on a qualitative study of rural men and women, Conrad (1997) postulated that the attainment of less formal education by rural youth may not be interpreted as valuing it less but as valuing it for different purposes. Her research findings indicated that, unlike urban

students who tend to value formal education for its own sake, rural students take a more practical approach to formal education as a means of acquiring specific job related skills. Hence, the participants in her study who pursued formal education did so to acquire the skills needed to attain a desired occupation.

Negative perceptions held by rural students have been shown to adversely influence their career aspirations. Studies (Elliot, 1988, Parrish and Lynch, 1990, William T. Grant Foundation, 1988 cited in Rojewski, 1990; Rojewski et al., 1995) have shown that fewer rural students either attend or graduate from college because they perceive that such desires for better education and employment are impossible to achieve. In a study on factors influencing career interests and aspirations of secondary high school females in Newfoundland, Boak and Boak (1989) noted that their most significant finding was the difference between rural and urban student perceptions of their suitability for particular careers. Such difference could account for the lower occupational aspirations of the rural participants. Self-confidence has also been positively related to college attendance among rural youth (Yang, 1981a). McCracken, Barcinas, and Wims (1991) found that rural students from low socioeconomic families were less confident than their middle class peers they would achieve future goals.

Rural living also brings with it inherent limitations that adversely influence the educational and occupational attainments of its youth. Compared to their urban counterparts, rural youth have limited access to role models, limited views of occupational opportunities, and a limited selection of career choices from areas that are familiar to them (Downey, 1980

cited in Swift, 1988). The educational attainments of rural students is also influenced by the lower prevalence of technical and professional jobs in rural communities that could serve as role models and occupational goals for rural young people (Conrad, 1997). As well, rural students appear to suffer from a lack of encouragement to attend college (Cobb, McIntire, and Pratt, 1989). In summarizing the impact of such limitations, Dunne (1980) cited in Rojewski (1995) stated that "rural birth and upbringing appear to impose general restrictions on young people's prospects for educational and occupational attainment" (p. 397).

Gender and Career Development in Rural Areas

There is little debate in the literature that the career development process and eventual occupational choice is influenced by gender (Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981; Farmer and Associates, 1997; Mphele, 1995; Sprey, 1962, 1984; Cross, 1971, Hoffman, 1972, and McNair and Brown, 1983 cited in Lee, 1984). Although research on this relationship in the rural setting is limited, what does exist indicated that gender differences exist (Rojewski et al., 1995). Lee (1984) concluded from research on 375 10th graders from five schools in five rural U.S. counties that gender was an important factor in the prediction of occupational aspiration and expectation for rural 10th graders. Research (Conroy, 1997; Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981; Sewell and Orenstein, 1965, and Middleton and Grigg, 1959 cited in Hall et al., 1995; Thomas and Falk, 1978, and Kuvlesky and Monk, 1975 cited in Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981) has also demonstrated that rural females have higher educational and occupational aspirations than rural males. Conroy (1997), for example, concluded from a

study of 106 rural secondary students in rural Pennsylvania school district that gender was the best predictor of ideal job choice and that females were more likely to aspire to high status jobs than rural males. The high aspirations of females, however, have been found not to correlate as well with their attainments (Brown and O'Leary, 1977 cited in Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981; Dunne, Elliot, and Carlsen, 1981).

One area of research concerning gender and career development in the rural setting has focussed on the influence of occupational sex stereotyping on rural youth. It has been argued that sex role stereotyping is the critical difference in the individual processes of achievement between rural males and females (Cosby,1979). The highest levels of sex role stereotyping have been found to exist in rural regions which adhered to traditional cultures (Dunne, 1980a). Research on rural youth has revealed substantial influence of rigid sex role stereotyping on the career choosing behavior of rural youth (Cosby, 1979; Schwarzweller and Lyson, 1978).

Differences have been found between male and female rural youth with respect to occupational sex role stereotyping. A 1978 study of 1,900 10^{th}, 11^{th}, and 12^{th} grade students in five rural regions of the U.S. revealed a high level of occupational stereotyping for both sexes but males demonstrated more stereotyping than females (Dunne, 1980a). Conroy (1997) found from research with rural secondary students in Pennsylvania that females identified less with traditional female occupations than 25 to 30 years ago. Furthermore, research into the career decision making process of rural gifted females has indicated that more of these students are planning to pursue nontraditional careers (Battle, Grant, and

Heggoy, 1995).

The literature revealed other findings with respect to the relationship of gender to career development in rural areas. Several studies (Alvi and Khan, 1983, McNair and Brown, 1983, Omvig and Thomas, 1977, and Smith and Herr, 1972 cited in Rojewski et al., 1995) concluded that significant gender differences exist in the career maturity of rural youth. Rojewski et al. (1995) found the rural females in their study demonstrated higher career maturity than their male peers. However, out of 575 high school seniors from a rural Texas county, more males than females planned to begin work immediately following graduation (Engels and Bonk, 1980). Boak and Boak (1989) in a study on factors that influence the career decisions of secondary high school females in Newfoundland found that rural females differed significantly from urban females in perceptions of their suitability for particular occupations. With regard to the career interests of rural students, Hall, Kelly, and Van Buren (1995) found the rural males in their study had more realistic occupational interests than all other subjects. A higher exposure to agricultural and mechanical career models in rural settings was a possible explanation for the difference. In research conducted on career indecision types among 189 ninth grade adolescents, gender showed no significant effects on students that placed within three types of career indecisiveness (Rojewski, 1994c).

It was well noted in the literature (for example, Dunne, 1980a, 1985) that rural females face greater challenges in their career development and occupational decisions than their male counterparts. Dunne (1980a; 1985) pointed out that rural females are constrained in their career aspirations by traditional expectations towards the role of females in rural

society as well as the other constraints placed on females by society in general. It has been argued that the traditional beliefs in rural settings about the roles of males and females create an environment where support for women's educational pursuits is lacking resulting in a discouraging effect on women's academic pursuits. In fact, rural females are less likely to have parents who will expect her to pursue higher education (Conrad, 1997).

The constraining effects of rural beliefs and expectations is particularly acute for rural gifted females whose aspirations may be towards more nontraditional careers. Such aspirations are more likely to conflict with rural expectations that females will help preserve the stable, conservative, educational, religious and social life of the community. As a result, they are pressured to abandon career goals in order to maintain stricter sex role stereotypes (Battle, Grant, and Heggory, 1995; Kleinsasser, 1986).

In her research on the career development of women, Farmer (1985) cited in Farmer and Associates (1997) found that the pull between home and career roles had a dampening effect on the long range career commitment of women. In fact, many women choose careers that they feel will better accommodate their family role. Rural women, however, face greater home versus career conflict than their urban counterparts due to the more traditional values and beliefs about women's roles that permeate rural culture (Dunne, 1980b). Furthermore, this conflict is intensified by the fact that local career opportunities for rural females are limited. These limitations are due to rural economic and value structures, occupational stereotyping, and a lack of available services such as child care that are essential for many females to pursue career options (Dunne, 1980a, 1980b).

Socioeconomic Status and Career Development in Rural Areas

It has been well established that the socioeconomic status of the family affects the career development of children (Blau and Duncan, 1967; Carter, 1997; Conrad, 1997; Furstenberg, 1974, Rainwater, 1974, and Featherman, 1981 cited in Rehm and Reagor, 1993; Haller and Virkler, 1993; McNair and Brown, 1983, and Watson and Van Aarde, 1986 cited in Rojewski, 1994a; Little, 1965, and Moulton and Stewart, 1971 cited in Lee, 1984; Mphele, 1995; Schwarzweller and Lyson, 1978; Tully et al., 1976, and Sewell and Shah, 1968 cited in Falk and Salter, 1978). Haller and Virkler (1993) asserted that socioeconomic status is linked to the career aspirations of students. Children typically aspire and attain careers with levels of socioeconomic status comparable to that of their parents (Sewell and Hauser, 1975 cited in Carter, 1997). Duncan and Blau (1967) and others cited in Rehm and Reagor (1993), for example, noted that youth from socioeconomically disadvantaged families are less likely to attain financial, educational, and vocational success than those from more advantaged families.

Research on the socioeconomic status of rural families and its effect on the career development of rural children is limited. What research exists has indicated that the rural families tend to have low socioeconomic status. Conroy (1997), for example, in a study of secondary students in rural Pennsylvania found the area to have low educational levels and low socioeconomic levels. Conrad (1997) noted that parental education levels acting as an indicator of socioeconomic status tend to be lower in rural families. Phelps, Raftery,

Mulkey, and McNamara (1990) cited in Rehm and Reagor (1993) found in their study that lower class students from rural Appalachia were more likely from broken homes and have parents with lower education levels. Moore (1983) in a study of factors that influence career choice among black college students from rural South Carolina found that these students came from families with low socioeconomic status. Others have concluded that the socioeconomic status of rural families on average fall somewhat below the average socioeconomic status of nonrural families (Swanson and Butler, 1988 cited in Haller and Virkler, 1993).

As for the effect of socioeconomic status on the career development of rural youth, Haller and Virkler (1993) attributed half the difference in the educational aspirations of rural and urban students to the divergence in socioeconomic status between rural and urban families. Aylesworth and Brown (1976) cited in Swift (1988) proposed that the higher dropout rate of rural college students was due to their lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

Other researchers (for example, Clinton, 1990 cited in Rehm and Reagor, 1993; McCracken, Barcinas, and Wims, 1991) pointed out that rural students from low socioeconomic families are clearly disadvantaged in their career development experiences. Rural students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, for example, tend to lack hope and have less confidence than their middle class peers that their goals can be achieved. Boak and Boak (1989) concluded from their research among high school girls in Newfoundland that rural students were clearly disadvantaged in their career development because of the prevalence of lower socioeconomic jobs held by their parents. This disadvantage was clearly

demonstrated in their findings that rural students aspired to lower status careers than their urban peers. Furthermore, the career development of rural students is further disadvantaged by the limited access to resources in rural settings (McCracken and Odell, 1988, Phelps, Raftery, Mulkey, and McNamara, 1990 cited in Rehm and Reagor, 1993). As Splete and Freeman-George (1985) cited in Rehm and Reagor (1993) stated: "Community parameters may severely affect disadvantaged youth, who may have exposure to few or low level jobs" (p. 26).

Although many socioeconomically disadvantaged parents in rural areas value education and have high educational aspirations for their children (McCracken and Odell, 1988 cited in Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell, 1992), they generally do not expect such aspirations to be realized because of the sense of powerlessness that rule their lives (Claus, 1990, Clinton, 1990, Ogbu, 1979 cited in Rehm and Reagor, 1993). This is noted by Ogbu (1979) cited in Rehm and Reagor (1993) who indicated that parents with lower socioeconomic status tend to socialize their children for only those career opportunities that they believe are available.

Socioeconomic status has been found to be related to the educational and occupational aspirations and choice of rural students, especially females (Conrad, 1997; Dunne et al., 1977; Schwarzweller and Lyson, 1978). Alexander and Eckland (1974) cited in Falk and Salter (1978) found that the educational plan formation of females rather than males to be more closely related to family socioeconomic status. As well, as an indicator of family socioeconomic status, the father's occupation was found to be directly related to

the educational expectations of females (Hout and Morgan, 1975 cited in Falk and Salter, 1978) and a significant predictor of job choice for females (Conroy, 1997).

Parental education level is an important element of socioeconomic status and has also been linked to the educational and occupational orientation of rural youth, and females in particular (Conrad, 1997). Falk and Salter (1978) asserted that the educational attainments of both parents significantly influence the educational aspirations and expectations of daughters. Other research has indicated, however, that it is the mother's educational level more than the father's education level or occupation that influences the daughter's occupational orientation (Falk and Salter, 1978). Yang (1981a) in researching the aspirations of rural youth noted that the father's education level positively influenced the college aspirations of their children while the mother's education level positively influenced their actual college attendance.

Self-Image and Career Development in Rural Areas

The relationship between self-image and the career development process has been recognized in the literature (Battle, Grant, and Heggoy, 1995; Lee, 1984). Studies (Bane, 1970 and Zieglar, 1973 cited in Lee, 1984) have shown that self esteem is closely related to occupational aspiration levels. These studies also concluded that those with high self esteem were better prepared to determine how particular occupations would meet personal needs, values, interests, and abilities.

Limited research among rural youth has concluded that rural youth generally have

lower self-esteem than urban youth (Schlichter, 1981 cited in Kleinsasser, 1986). One study of the relationship between the self-image and educational plans of grade 8 adolescents from rural and urban communities found self-image and educational plans to be lower for the rural students. As well, the rural students with the lowest aspirations were those with the lowest self-esteem (Sarigiani, et al., 1990). In a comparative study of self image in rural and urban females, rural females demonstrated lower self-images than their urban counterparts (Berryman et al., 1983, and Petersen et al., 1978 cited in Kleinsesser, 1986). Petersen et al. (1978) cited in Kleinsasser (1986) asserted that low self esteem found in rural students is bred by the lack of hope, accomplishment, and pride that often permeates the atmosphere of rural family life.

Some research has been conducted on poor youth as well as academically and socially "at-risk" youth in rural settings. It has been suggested that the combination of personal and environmental barriers in rural settings creates depressed self-concepts and doubly jeopardizes any chances these youth may have for future success (Sweeney, 1971; Rojewski, 1995).

Rural Settings and Role Models

There is no lack of evidence in the literature linking the significant influence role models have upon the career development of youth (Basoe and Glasser Howe,1980; Farmer and Associates, 1997; Foss and Slaney, 1986; Hackett, Esposito, and O'Halloran, 1989). Farmer and Associates (1997) indicated that positive experiences with career role models

predicted career commitment and educational aspirations. A substantial amount of literature, however, is concerned with the lack of role models in rural areas and the limiting effect it has on the career development of rural youth (Apostal and Bilden, 1991; Boak and Boak, 1989; Downey, 1980 cited in Swift, 1988; Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell, 1992; Keller, 1980; Lipsett, 1955 cited in Hall et al., 1995; Middleton and Grigg,1959 cited in Hall et al.,1995; Rich,1979; Sewell and Ornstein, 1965; Sweeney, 1971; Swift, 1988). For example, Rich (1979) asserted that rural youth are more likely to aspire to lower status occupations than their urban peers because of the lack of higher status occupational role models in rural communities. Similarly, Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell (1992) in their research of the career needs of rural Newfoundland students found that rural parents felt their children had limited access to knowledge of jobs and potentially available careers because of the lack of diverse and powerful role models in rural communities. Consequently, rural students have lower career aspirations. Furthermore, Downey(1980) cited in Swift (1988) noted that rural youth have limited access to occupational role models that limits their views of occupational opportunities and results in them selecting occupations from familiar career areas.

In recent research, Hall et al.(1995) found that rural boys had high occupational interests in sectors where no job growth was expected. Their findings led them to conclude that the limited career interests of these boys was due to either their exposure to just the agricultural and mechanical career models found in their rural setting or their lack of exposure to role models representing a wide variety of career areas and interests. Their study

substantiated the concern of Apostal and Bilden (1991) that lack of career models inhibit the career growth of rural youth. In fact, Sweeney (1971) pointed out that the scarcity of skilled, business, professional, and paraprofessional occupational role models in rural areas makes it difficult for rural students to accept the relevance of education to their future aspirations.

The literature also focused on the importance of role models to the career development of females in rural areas. Research (for example, Boak and Boak, 1989; Cahill, 1992b; Darcy, 1987; Wiseman, 1983) conducted among rural youth in Newfoundland has concluded that lack of role models in rural Newfoundland is a significant factor in the traditional or nontraditional career aspirations of rural youth and females in particular. The research findings of both Wiseman (1983) and Darcy (1987) indicated that the choice of nontraditional careers among Newfoundland's rural female youth was limited in part by their insufficient exposure to role models. Lack of career role models in rural Newfoundland communities was also suggested as a reason for the difference between rural and urban student's perceptions of their suitability for particular careers (Boak and Boak, 1989). Cahill (1992b) in a qualitative study of the career development of rural women in Newfoundland and Labrador found that the need existed for increased exposure of rural females to more role models in nontraditional careers as a way of supplementing their limited career development.

Parental Influence on Adolescent Career Development in Rural Areas

A substantial body of literature (Engels and Bonk, 1980; Hansen and Ross, 1980;

Lee, 1984; Lehr and Jeffery, 1996; Otto, 1989 cited in Lehr and Jeffery, 1996; Trusty et al., 1996) exists supporting the notion that parents play a significant and influential role in the career development of their children. Research on the role and contribution of parents to the career development of rural youth is limited but growing (Lehr and Jeffery, 1996). What exists clearly indicated that rural parents play a significant role in the career choices of their youth. The career decisions of rural students in Australia were found to be made primarily with the advice from parents (McSwan and Stevens, 1995). A survey of white Appalachian and rural black youth indicated that parents significantly influenced their career decisions (Peterson et al., 1986). Yang (1981a) found that parents were most influential in the decisions of their rural subjects to attend college. Boak and Boak (1989) concluded from their research on factors influencing the career interests and aspirations of female high school students in Newfoundland that parents were the most influential factors in the career plans of these females.

Studies (Dunne et al., 1977; Stevens and Mason, 1994) have demonstrated that, in rural settings, both parents played an equally influential role in providing career advice and support to sons while daughters' career decisions were influenced more by the mother. Mason and Stevens (1993), however, in a study of 10th grade students in rural West Australia found that the career decisions of these students were influenced mainly by the mother regardless of gender.

Rural youth can be advantaged in their career development by parents. Career drifters from rural Newfoundland felt that their parents did not hinder their career decision

making process but provided high levels of support for the career decisions they made (Cahill, 1992a). McCracken and Odell (1988) cited in Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell (1992) concluded from their research among rural secondary students in Ohio that rural parents hold educational expectations for their children that are higher than their own attainments. In a 10 year study of males from rural economically disadvantaged school districts, it was found that those who had high identification models in fathers ended up holding high educational and occupational aspirations and achievements themselves (Jackson, 1981). Rural communities can also positively influence the career development process of its youth through the active role that rural parents and family play in the educational life of their children (Sarkees, 1990).

Rural parents, however, do face unique limitations and problems that can adversely impact the career development of their youth. Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell (1992) and Lehr and Jeffery (1996) noted from their study of the career needs of rural youth in Newfoundland that rural parents have limited access to and knowledge of the jobs and careers that are potentially available and therefore felt limited in their ability to effectively help their youth with career decisions. Furthermore, many of these parents expressed a lack of empowerment and confidence to obtain such information and subsequently communicate it to their children. Their lack of education was also viewed as hampering their ability to be effective role models for their children (Lehr and Jeffery, 1996).

In summary, the literature demonstrates that the rural context has demographic, economic, social, and cultural features that clearly distinguish it from the urban environment.

There is ample evidence in the research that rural youth experience the career development process differently than their urban counterparts. Specifically, the literature substantiates that differences exist between the educational and occupational aspirations of rural and urban youth. Furthermore, the research also supports the notion that rural/urban differences in the career development of youth are influenced further by other factors such as gender, socioeconomic status, self-image, role models, and parents.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Data for this study was gathered through the administration of a pencil/paper questionnaire to a sample of rural and urban youth who were in their graduating year of senior high school in Newfoundland and Labrador. Specifically, this study surveyed Level III students residing in those rural communities located within the geographical area of the island of Newfoundland known as Green Bay, and Level III students residing in St. John's, Newfoundland. Level III students in the Green Bay area attend one of five schools that are under the jurisdiction of the Baie Verte/Central/Connaigre School District. Two of these schools are high schools while the other three are all-grade schools. Two of the all-grade schools have multi-grade classrooms and are located on islands accessible only by ferry. The total number of Level III students in these five schools is approximately 130.

The urban sample was drawn from a senior high school located in St. John's, Newfoundland which is under the jurisdiction of the Avalon East School District. This school had a population of 261 Level III students.

All the rural communities selected for this study have populations of 3500 or less while the urban center has a population greater than 100,000. The economies of the rural communities are, in various degrees, tied to the fishing, logging, and mining industries. The largest community in the area has a population of approximately 3500 and is referred to as the "Hub of Green Bay" because of its central location and it serves as the main economic

and service center for the Green Bay area. Except for one private college in this community, the nearest post-secondary institutions are located approximately 150 kms away in Grand Falls-Windsor. While a university degree in arts can be completed at the Sir Wilfred Grenfell College located approximately 250 kilometres away in Corner Brook, all other degree programmes must be completed by moving approximately 600 kilometres to St. John's or outside the province.

Even though several of the communities have been affected by the closure of the cod fishery, increased diversification of the fishery into other species such as crab, seals, herring, and lobster has continued to provide seasonal employment for many fishers in the area. Furthermore, the discovery of gold deposits in the area has sparked some hope that employment opportunities will become available pending mining development in the near future. The Green Bay Economic Development Association has also been actively pursuing and promoting new and creative initiatives to harness area resources in order to make Green Bay a viable and prosperous economic zone. The combination of rural and economic effects that such a context would have upon resident high school students made Green Bay an ideal area from which to draw a rural sample.

St. John's is Newfoundland's largest urban center and capital city from which the province is governed. It is the place where the most and largest post-secondary institutions are located. St. John's is a growing city with many of the amenities and problems of any Canadian urban center. With the recent developments and growth in the offshore oil and high technology industries, the city is attracting many companies hoping to benefit from these

promising economic enterprises. As Newfoundland's main urban center, St. John's seemed to be the most logical place from which to draw the proposed urban sample.

Instrument

Data for this study was collected through the administration of individual pen/paper questionnaires. This type of data-gathering instrument allowed for the collection of data from a relatively large and scattered sample in a limited amount of time. Obtaining data through a survey instrument is a widely and frequently used research method because of the substantial body of information that can be amassed most economically from a large sample (Kerlinger, 1973).

The questionnaire was composed of 40 items with the majority requiring the respondent to check the appropriate response. Except for some items that were developed by the researcher, most were extracted or modified from items contained in the *Youth Transition Into the Labour Market Survey* (Sharpe and Spain, 1991) and the survey instrument used by Genge (1996). See Appendix A for complete questionnaire. Since these surveys were refined and validated for use in these studies, it was considered unnecessary to further field-test the version used in this study.

Procedure

In April 1999, a sample questionnaire and letter requesting permission to solicit the participation of those schools selected for the study was sent to each of the Directors of

Education for the Avalon East and Baie Verte/Central/Connaigre School Districts. (See Appendix B for letter). When approval was granted, the principal for each of the selected schools was contacted by telephone to inform him or her of the study, its purpose, and procedure and to obtain permission to survey the Level III students in each school. Once permission was obtained, the exact number of Level III students in each school was requested to determine the number of questionnaires needed for each school. The principal was also asked to provide the name of a contact person in the school who could be contacted to solicit his/her assistance in administering the questionnaire. Each person was then contacted either by telephone or personal visit to explain the study, its purpose, and procedure, to solicit his/her agreement to administer the survey, and to provide specific instructions for administration. Written instructions for the administration of the questionnaire along with the correct number of actual instruments was delivered personally to the contact person in each school for administration in May, 1999. (See Appendix C for instructions).

A class period was recommended for administration of the questionnaire in order to reduce the time and cost involved in collecting data. The month of May was chosen because it was assumed that by then most Level III students had their plans made for the following year and it parallelled the time of year that previous and similar studies were conducted (Sharpe and Spain, 1991; Genge, 1996) so that results could be compared. Furthermore, many post-secondary institutions have contacted applicants by then to inform them of their application status.

Completed questionnaires were personally collected from each school. They were

later coded and data was entered into a computer database file for analysis by appropriate statistical procedures using the statistical program SPSS, Version 9.

Returns

The overall rate of completed questionnaires for the combined rural and urban sample was 44 % (171 of potentially 390 students completed a questionnaire). For the rural sample, there was a 80% response rate (104 of the 130 Level III students in Green Bay completed a questionnaire) while the response rate for the urban sample was 26% (67 of 261 Level III students in the selected urban high school completed a questionnaire). No reason for the low response rate was given to the researcher. In the combined sample, approximately an equal number of males (50.9%) and females (49.1%) completed questionnaires.

Data Analysis

The data analysis for this study was completed using SPSS, a statistical program used in the social sciences. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, and crosstabs were used to summarize findings and answer questions. Crosstabs were used to answer questions requiring comparisons between two or more variables. Using a 95 % confidence interval, chi squares were employed to determine whether or not observed differences between variables were statistically significant.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the statistical analysis performed on the data collected for this study to answer the research questions posed in Chapter One. Descriptive statistics involving frequencies, percentages, and crosstabs were used to organize and analyze the data for presentation. Chi-square analyses were also performed using significance level of $p < .05$ to determine significant gender differences.

Since the study sample had a substantial rural bias, the data was not analyzed for urban/rural differences. Instead, using the same set of research questions to guide the process, analysis was conducted separately on each of the combined, rural, and urban samples. The results are presented by sample. A demographic profile is presented for each sample followed by the results for each research question.

THE COMBINED SAMPLE

Demographic Profile

Information gathered from the first eight questions was used to provide a comparative demographic and background description of all the Level III students who participated in this study. These questions related to gender, age, area, school grades for last year and this year, as well as the education level and employment status of both parents. Combined, this information provided a basic profile of the sample.

Gender and Area

As can be seen in Table 4.1, distribution of the sample by gender was approximately the same with 51.4% males and 48.6% females. The distribution of rural and urban students in the sample by gender was also similar with about 51% of the males in each area, and about 49% of the females in each area (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Combined Gender and Area Distribution of Sample

Gender	Rural (N = 106)		Urban (N = 67)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Male	54	50.9	35	52.2	89	51.4
		(60.7)		(39.3)		(100)
Female	52	49.1	32	47.8	84	48.6
		(61.9)		(38.1)		(100)
Total	106	100	67	100	173	100
		(61.3)		(38.7)		(100)

Age

Students were asked to indicate their present age. Ages ranged from 16 years to 20 years and over. Almost half the students (48%) were 17 while most (86%) fell in the 17 to 18 year old range (see Table 4.2). Out of the total sample, more of the 17 year olds were males (26.6%) while a higher percentage of the 18 and 19 year olds were female. There were no statistically significant differences in ages by gender.

Table 4.2
Age Distribution
(N = 173)

Age	Males (N = 89)		Females (N = 84)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
16	2	2.2	2	2.4	4	2.3
17	46	51.7	37	44.0	83	48.0
18	32	36.0	34	40.5	66	38.2
19	6	6.7	11	13.1	17	9.8
20+	3	3.4	0	0.0	3	1.7

$x^2 = 5.30$ $p = .252$

Grades

Students were asked what their overall school average was for last year and this year. For last year 38.2% indicated an overall average of 80 and above while almost half (48%) of the students indicated an overall average in the 65-79 grade range. The majority (86.2%) had averages in the 65 and above grade range (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.4 shows students' averages for this year. Again, most students (86.2%) reported an overall average of 65 and above. Nobody reported an overall failing average for this year. When both years were compared, more students reported an average of 80 and above for this year than last year (see Table 4.5).

When compared by gender, statistically significant differences were evident for each year. As can be seen in Tables 4.3 and 4.4, higher percentages of females (48.8% and 61.9%) than males (28.1% and 30.3%) indicated averages of 80 and above for both years. However,

for each year more males (71.9% and 69.7%) reported overall school averages that were below 80.

Table 4.3
Average Last Year
(N = 173)

Average	Male (N = 89)		Female (N = 84)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	25	28.1	41	48.8	66	38.2
65 - 79	47	52.8	36	42.9	83	48.0
50 - 64	16	18.0	7	8.3	23	13.2
≤ 49	1	1.1	0	0.0	1	0.6

$x^2 = 9.72$ $p = .02$

Table 4.4
Average This Year
(N = 173)

Average	Male (N = 89)		Female (N = 84)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	27	30.3	52	61.9	79	45.7
65 - 79	46	51.7	24	28.6	70	40.5
50 - 64	16	18.0	8	9.5	24	13.9
≤ 49	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 17.36$ $p = 0.000$

Table 4.5
Comparison of Average for Both Years
(N = 173)

Average	Last year		This year	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	66	38.2	79	45.7
65 - 79	83	48.0	70	40.5
50 - 64	23	13.2	24	13.9
≤ 49	1	0.6	0	0.0

Parent Education Level

Students were asked to indicate the highest level of education completed by both parents. As seen in Table 4.6, 40.5% of students' mothers were either university or college graduates while another 13.3% had completed some university or college education. Almost one quarter (22.5%) of students reported high school graduation as their mother's highest level of education, while 21.4% had less than high school graduation.

As for the fathers' level of education, 42.2% of respondents indicated that their fathers were either university or college graduates while an additional 7.5% had completed some university or college education. Although the highest level of education for 15.6% of fathers was high school graduation, almost twice that number (30.1%) had less than that level.

As seen in Table 4.5, a comparison of both parents' education levels revealed that a slightly greater number of mothers (53.8%) than fathers (49.8%) had completed some level

of education beyond high school. As well, a larger percentage of fathers (30.1%) than mothers (21.4%) had an education level that was less than high school graduation.

Table 4.6
Education Level of Parents
(N = 173)

Education Level	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Some schooling	37	21.4	52	30.1
Graduated from high school	39	22.5	27	15.6
Some university education	10	5.8	6	3.5
Some college education	13	7.5	7	4.1
University graduate	50	28.9	54	31.2
College graduate	20	11.6	19	11.0
Don't know	4	2.3	7	4.0
No response	0	0.0	1	0.6

Parent Employment and Occupational Status

Students were asked two questions regarding the employment status of each parent. The first question related to the type of employment as categorized in Table 4.7. The second question related to their specific occupation when employed.

As indicated in Table 4.7, a substantial majority of students' fathers (87.9%) and mothers (79.2%) were employed either full-time or part-time. Out of those employed, the majority of fathers and mothers had full time employment (66.5% and 53.2% respectively).

However, 9.2% of students' fathers and 19.1% of their mothers were unemployed. Although the category "retired" was not listed as an option in the question, 1.2% of the students noted that their fathers were retired and 1.2% noted their mothers were retired.

Table 4.7
Employment Status of Parents
(N = 173)

Employment Status	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Employed full-time	115	66.5	92	53.2
Employed part-time	37	21.4	45	26.0
Unemployed	16	9.2	33	19.1
Retired	2	1.2	2	1.2
No response	3	1.7	1	0.6

The Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO) was used to classify parents' occupations according to "major group" codes. As shown in Table 4.8, parental occupations were distributed among 19 different occupational groups, with 18 for fathers and 15 for mothers. Two categories equally shared the most frequently cited occupations for fathers. These were teaching and related occupations (12.7%) and forestry, logging, and related occupations (12.7%). The next most common occupational categories for fathers were managerial, administrative and related occupations (10.4%) and construction trades (9.8%). No fathers were in clerical occupations.

The most frequently cited occupational category for mothers was in medicine and health (13.9%). The next two most commonly cited areas included clerical and related occupations (12.7%) and teaching and related occupations (12.1%).

Table 4.8
Parent Occupation Group
(N = 173)

Occupational Groups	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	18	10.4	14	8.1
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	10	5.8	4	2.3
Occupations in social science and related fields	2	1.2	7	4.0
Occupations in religion	5	2.9	1	0.6
Teaching and related occupations	22	12.7	21	12.1
Occupations in medicine & health	7	4.0	24	13.9
Artistic, literary & performing arts occupations	1	0.6	0	0.0
Sales occupations	5	2.9	14	8.1
Service occupations	7	4.0	16	9.2
Clerical occupations	0	0.0	22	12.7
Fishing, trapping and hunting occupations	7	4.0	2	1.2

(continued)

Table 4.8 continued

Occupational Groups	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mining and quarrying, including oil and gas field occupations	11	6.4	1	0.6
Forestry and logging occupations	22	12.7	0	0.0
Processing occupations	2	1.2	7	4.0
Machining and related occupations	2	1.2	0	0.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	12	6.9	3	1.7
Construction trades occupations	17	9.8	2	1.2
Transport equipment operating occupations	3	1.7	0	0.0
Occupations not elsewhere classified	6	3.5	5	2.9
No response	14	8.1	30	17.3

As can be seen in Table 4.9, the General Education Development (GED) levels for the majority of both parents' occupations were generally low. Over half of the fathers' occupations (57.3%) and almost two thirds (64.4%) of the mothers' occupations had a GED level of four or less. GED levels could not be determined for 3.8% of the fathers' occupations and 1.4% of the mothers' occupations because they owned businesses that had uncodeable GED levels.

The Specific Vocational Preparation (SVP) time for parents occupations were generally high. Over two thirds of the fathers' and mothers' occupations (71.1% and 69%

respectively) had SVP levels of five and higher (see Table 4.10). SVP levels could not be determined for 3.8% of the fathers' occupations and 1.4% of the mothers' occupations.

Table 4.9
GED of Parents' Occupations

GED	Father (N = 159)		Mother (N = 143)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	4	2.5	5	3.5
2	33	20.8	27	18.9
3	27	17	20	14
4	27	17	40	28
5	43	27	41	28.7
6	19	11.9	8	5.6
8	6	3.8	2	1.4

GED level is based on both formal and informal aspects of education which contribute to a worker's reasoning development, ability to follow instructions and the acquisition of mathematical and language skills.

Table 4.10
SVP of Parents' Occupations

SVP	Father (N = 159)		Mother (N = 143)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	6	3.8	2	1.4
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	5	3.1	31	21.7
3	25	15.7	7	4.9

(continued)

Table 4.10 continued

SVP	Father (N = 159)		Mother (N = 143)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
4	10	6.3	3	2.1
5	10	6.3	11	7.7
6	14	8.8	23	16.1
7	48	30.2	50	35
8	40	25.2	14	9.8
9	1	0.6	2	1.4

SVP level is based on the time required to learn the skills and techniques needed in an occupation.

Research Question 1

What are the students' career aspirations?

Students' career aspirations were determined by asking them to identify the occupation(s) they would like to have in five to ten years. As Table 4.11 shows, the maximum number of choices listed was two. Most students (72.3%) listed one choice while 9.8% gave two choices and 17.9% gave no choice.

Table 4.11
Number of Occupational Choices
(N = 173)

Response	Total	
	Freq.	%
One choice	125	72.3
Two choices	17	9.8
No response	31	17.9

Students' occupational choices were categorized according to the group codes of the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO). Choices were grouped under 20 different occupational categories as listed in Table 4.12.

Over half the students' choices in occupations (53.2%) were divided among the categories of medicine and health (16.2%), natural sciences, engineering and mathematics (16.2%), service occupations (10.4%) and social sciences (10.4%). Student choices in other occupational categories varied widely from 6.4% in teaching and related occupations, 5.8% in artistic, literary to less than 1 % in each of the clerical, sales, processing, and farming, horticultural occupational groups. No students indicated they wanted an occupation in the fishing, hunting, trapping and related occupations category.

Table 4.12
Student Occupational Choices
(N = 173)

Occupational Group	Total	
	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	6	3.5
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	28	16.2
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	18	10.4
Occupations in religion	3	1.7
Teaching and related occupations	11	6.4
Occupations in medicine and health	28	16.2
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	10	5.8
Occupations in sport and recreation	2	1.2
Clerical and related occupations	1	0.6
Sales occupations	1	0.6
Service occupations	18	10.4
Farming, horticultural and animal-husbandry occupations	1	0.6
Forestry and logging occupations	4	2.3
Mining and quarrying including oil and gas field occupations	2	1.2
Processing occupations	1	0.6

(continued)

Table 4.12 continued

Occupational Group	Total	
	Freq.	%
Machining and related occupations	2	1.2
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	8	4.6
Construction trades occupations	5	2.9
Transport equipment operating occupations	8	4.6
Other occupations	2	1.2
Don't know	1	0.6
No response	30	17.3

Note: Students could list more than one career choice. The totals for each occupational group are displayed in the table. Up to two career choices are recorded.

Another way of examining students' career aspirations is to look at occupational GED and SVP levels. An examination of the GED levels of the occupations chosen revealed that the most frequent GED levels were high. As Table 4.13 shows, the most frequently cited GED levels were 5 and 6 (47.9% and 21.8% respectively).

As for the SVP time of the occupations chosen by students, the most frequently cited levels were also high. SVP time levels of 7 and 8 were equally cited most frequently (35.9%) with level 6 as the next most frequently selection (20.4%) (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.13
GED Levels of Students' Occupational Choices
(N = 142)

GED	Total	
	Freq.	%
2	6	4.2
3	28	19.7
4	24	16.9
5	68	47.9
6	31	21.8
8	2	1.4

Note: Totals include students' second choices.

Table 4.14
SVP Levels of Students' Occupational Choices
(N = 142)

SVP	Total	
	Freq.	%
0	2	1.4
1	0	0.0
2	1	0.7
3	7	4.9
4	9	6.3
5	6	4.2
6	29	20.4

(continued)

Table 4.14 continued

SVP	Total	
	Freq.	%
7	51	35.9
8	51	35.9
9	3	2.1

Note: Totals include students' second choices.

Students were asked to indicate how long they had been interested in their occupational choice. Table 4.15 shows that while the largest number of students were interested in their occupational choices for more than two years, almost 80% of them have been interested in their choices for at least one year. When asked to indicate how they became interested in their occupational choice, the majority of students (56.3%) listed factors other than those given (see Table 4.16). These included personal interests, school courses and programs, volunteer work, career days, television and reading.

Table 4.15
Student Length of Interest
(N = 144)

Length of Interest	Total	
	Freq.	%
Less than 1 year	22	15.3
1 - 2 years	51	35.4
More than 2 years	62	43.1
Don't know	9	6.3

The numbers of students who became interested in their occupational choice through a teacher or guidance counsellor were quite low (3.5% and 2.1% respectively) (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16
How Students Became Interested in Occupational Choice
(N = 142)

How	Frequency	%
Parents	19	13.4
Friends	21	14.8
Teacher	5	3.5
Guidance counsellor	3	2.1
Combination	14	9.9
Other	80	56.3

Students were also asked if they knew someone in the occupation they would like to enter and whether they had discussed this occupation with that person. The majority (58.7%) indicated they did know someone in the occupation (see Table 4.17). Out of this number, 59.8% had discussed the occupation with that person (see Table 4.18).

Table 4.17
Student Knew Someone in Chosen Occupation
(N = 143)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	84	58.7
No	59	41.3

Table 4.18
Student Had Discussed Occupation
(N = 84)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	58	69
No	26	31

Research Question 2

What are students' immediate career plans?

Students were asked about their plans for the year immediately following high school graduation. They were given a list of statements as shown in Table 4.19 and asked to check the one that best described their plans. The majority of students (74.6%) indicated that they planned to further their education or training while 15% planned to go to work. A very small number of students (2.9%) planned to return to high school or had no plans at all (2.9%) while another 4.6% planned to take the year off.

Table 4.19
Plans For Year After Level III
(N = 173)

Plans for next year	Freq.	%
Further education or training	129	74.6
Work	26	15.0
Take year off	8	4.6
Return to high school	5	2.9
No plans	5	2.9

Those students who indicated they planned to further their education or training were also asked to further indicate the type and location of post-secondary institution they planned to attend as outlined in Table 4.20. The majority of students (55%) planned to attend Memorial University while 17.9% indicated plans to attend either a public or private college in Newfoundland and Labrador. Almost one quarter (24%) were planning to attend either a university or college outside of the province. A small number of students (3.1%) did not know what type or location of post-secondary institution they planned to attend.

Table 4.20
Type and Location of Institution Planning to Attend
(N = 129)

Institution	Frequency	%
Memorial University of Newfoundland	71	55.0
University outside Newfoundland & Labrador	19	14.7
College in Newfoundland & Labrador	23	17.9
College outside Newfoundland & Labrador	12	9.3
Don't know	4	3.1

Students who planned not to pursue post-secondary education in the year following high school graduation were asked three questions: one that related to occupation, one to location of employment, and one regarding future plans for post-secondary education.

As can be seen in Table 4.21, the majority of students (61.4%) indicated the type of job they thought they might obtain. Jobs in the sales (18.2%) and service (11.4%) industries were the most frequently mentioned. Sales occupations included store clerks, supermarket helpers, and gas bar attendants, while service occupations included bartending, cosmetology, babysitting, hotel worker, and funeral home worker. Numbers in other occupational groups varied ranging from 6.8% in construction trades to 2.3% in a number of other industry areas. 4.5% of those students indicated they thought they might have their own business. No student indicated an occupation in either the mining or fishing industries.

Table 4.21
Jobs Expected by Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education
(N = 44)

Occupational Group	Frequency	%
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	2.3
Occupations in sport and recreation	1	2.3
Clerical and related occupations	1	2.3
Sales occupations	8	18.2
Service occupations	5	11.4
Forestry and logging occupations	1	2.3
Machining and related occupations	1	2.3
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	1	2.3
Construction trades occupations	3	6.8
Transport equipment operating occupations	1	2.3
Other (own business)	2	4.5
Occupations not elsewhere classified	2	4.5
Don't know	4	9.1
No response	13	29.5

When asked to indicate where they expected they would be employed in these occupations, the majority (58.1%) felt it would be in their hometown area, while a further 9.7% believed they would be employed in occupations elsewhere in Newfoundland and Labrador (see Table 4.22). Nearly one third (29%) expected they would be employed in occupations outside the province.

Table 4.22
Expected Employment Location Next Year
(N = 31)

Location	Frequency	%
Hometown area	18	58.1
Elsewhere in Newfoundland & Labrador	3	9.7
Outside of the province	9	29
No response	1	3.2

Out of the number of students who did not plan to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school, 68.2% felt they would further their education at a later time while another 18.2% were uncertain (see Table 4.23).

Table 4.23
Plans to Pursue Post-Secondary Education Later
(N = 44)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	30	68.2
No	3	6.8
Not sure	8	18.2
No response	3	6.8

Research Question 3

What are the students' future career expectations?

Responses from three items were used to answer this question. These items dealt with employment status, occupation, and general place of residence expected in five to ten years.

Students were asked to identify what they expected their employment status to be in five to ten years as defined by the choices outlined in Table 4.24. Three quarters (75.2%) of students expected to be employed full time which includes 8.1% who also expected to be homemakers. Another 7.5% expected to have part-time or seasonal employment. While 12.7% expected to be furthering their education in five to ten years, an additional 3.5% indicated that they expected they would be furthering their education and working at the same time. Less than 1% expected to be unemployed in five to ten years.

Those students who expected to have full time or part time employment in five to ten years were asked to identify the occupation they would have. As Table 4.25 reveals, that most students (71.9%) expected to be employed in occupations that they aspired towards while a smaller number of students (13.5%) had occupational expectations that differed from their occupational aspirations. 26.2% of those students with different occupational expectations indicated they didn't know what their occupation would be. Another 13.1% believed they would be in occupations related to computer technology or programming while the other 34.5% of the students' occupations included cook, psychologist, sales clerk, welder, motor vehicle mechanic, heavy duty equipment operator, and an occupation in audio/visual

equipment (see Table 4.26). As Tables 4.27 and 4.28 show, both the GED and SVP levels of the occupations specified by students were generally high. Approximately 40% of the occupations had GED levels of 4 and higher while the SVP time levels of over half (52.8%) the occupations were 6 and higher.

Table 4.24
Future Work And Employment Status Expectations in 5 -10 Years
(N = 173)

Expectations	Freq.	%
Employed full time	116	67.1
Furthering education	22	12.7
Employed full time & homemaker	14	8.1
Employed part time/seasonally & homemaker	7	4.0
Employed part time/seasonally & collecting E.I.	6	3.5
Employed and furthering educations	6	3.5
Unemployed but homemaker	1	0.6
No response	1	0.6

Table 4.25
Occupation Expected in 5-10 Years
(N = 171)

Occupation Expectation	Freq.	%
Same as previously identified	123	71.9
Different	23	13.5
No response	25	14.6

Table 4.26
Different Expected Occupations in 5 - 10 Years
(N = 23)

Occupational Group	Freq.	%
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	3	13.1
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	1	4.3
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	4.3
Sales occupations	1	4.3
Service occupations	2	8.7
Machining and related occupations	1	4.3
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	1	4.3
Construction trades occupations	1	4.3
Don't know	6	26.2
No response	6	26.2

Table 4.27
GED Level of Different Expected Occupations
(N = 17)

GED	Freq.	%
2	1	5.9
3	3	17.6
4	2	11.8
5	4	23.4
6	1	5.9
Unknown	6	35.3

Table 4.28
SVP Level of Different Expected Occupations
(N = 17)

SVP	Freq.	%
2	1	5.9
4	1	5.9
6	3	17.6
7	3	17.6
8	3	17.6
Unknown	6	35.3

Table 4.29 displays the data on where students expected to be living in five to ten years. Over two thirds (68.8%) of students indicated they expected to be living outside Newfoundland and Labrador while 16.2% expected to be living in their hometown area. A relatively smaller number of students (13.3%) said they expected their future residence to be elsewhere in the province.

Table 4.29
Students Expected Residence in 5-10 Years
(N = 173)

Expected Residence	Freq.	%
Outside Newfoundland and Labrador	119	68.8
Hometown area in Newfoundland and Labrador	28	16.2
Other than hometown area in Newfoundland & Labrador	23	13.3
Don't know	2	1.2
No response	1	0.6

Research Question 4

What are students' reasons for deciding not to further their education immediately after high school graduation?

Students who did not plan to further their education immediately following high school graduation were asked to select from a list of possible reasons, those that applied to them. A summary of responses is shown in Table 4.30. The most frequently cited reasons were: *I haven't decided what program I'd like to do* (43.2%), followed by *I have a chance to work* (31.8%), *it costs too much money*, and *I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements* (25% each). A fair number of students felt they did not have the ability to do well in post secondary education (22.7%) while fewer believed they lacked money for school (13.6%) or that further education is not necessary for them to get a job (13.6%). *Having to leave my home community* and *having no desire to pursue further education at this time* were cited as reasons for a smaller but equal number of students (11.4%). The number of students in two of the remaining three reasons was low (4.5% and 2.3%), while a relatively higher number (18.2%) indicated other reasons than those listed. Reasons cited in this category included: already employed, wanting to work to save money, wanting to take a year off, needing more high school courses, and on a two year waiting list.

Table 4.30
Reasons for Not Pursuing Further Education Following High School Graduation (N = 44)

Reasons	Freq.	%
I haven't decided what program I'd like to do	19	43.2
I have a chance to work	14	31.8
It costs too much money	11	25
I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements	11	25
I feel I don't have the ability	10	22.7
I may not have enough money for school	6	13.6
I feel that further education is not necessary to get a job	6	13.6
I would have to leave my home community	5	11.4
I have no desire to further my education at this time	5	11.4
I am needed at home	2	4.5
I am getting married	1	2.3
Other	8	18.2
No response	1	2.3

Students could choose any number of reasons. The total for each reason is displayed in the table.

When asked to indicate the most important reason for not pursing post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation, the largest number of students (11.4%) felt they did not have the grades to gain entrance into a post-secondary institution. A slightly smaller group of students (9.1%) had not decided what program they would like to do while another 6.8% had a chance to work next year. Other reasons thought to be most important in planning not to pursue further education next year are listed in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31
Most Important Reason for Not Furthering Education
(N = 44)

Reasons	Freq.	%
I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements	5	11.4
I haven't decided what program	4	9.1
I have a chance to work	3	6.8
It costs too much money	2	4.5
I feel I don't have the ability	2	4.5
I feel further education is not necessary to get a job	2	4.5
I am needed at home	1	2.3
I have no desire to further my education at this time	1	2.3
I am getting married	1	2.3
No response	23	52.3

Research Question 5

How do students plan to fund their post-secondary education for next year?

Students who planned to pursue post-secondary education next year were asked to indicate on a five point scale the amount of financial support for their education they expected to receive from each of seven sources. As summarized by Table 4.32, the main source of financial support was Canada Student Loans followed by parents. 42.9% of the 129 students indicated they expected Canada Student Loans to provide at least half of the funding for their post-secondary education while 38% expected Canada Student Loans would fund either most or all of their post-secondary education. A smaller number of students (36.4%)

indicated they expected their parents to fund at least half of their post-secondary education costs.

Almost 80% of the students expected parents to fund at least some of their post-secondary education costs while smaller majorities of students indicated they felt at least some of the necessary funds would be provided through summer jobs (62.8%) and Canada Student Loans (61.3%) (see Table 4.32).

Table 4.32
Sources of Funding for Post-Secondary Education for Next Year
(N = 129)

Sources	None	Some	Half	Most	All	No response
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Parents	7.0	42.6	3.9	27.1	5.4	14.0
Other relative	35.7	17.8	0.0	1.6	0.0	44.9
Part time work during year	20.9	33.3	3.1	0.8	0.0	41.9
Summer job	6.2	55.8	4.7	2.3	0.0	31.0
Canada Student Loan	13.2	19.4	3.9	35.7	2.3	25.5
Scholarship/Bursary	21.7	39.5	3.1	2.3	1.6	31.8
Other	16.3	4.7	0.8	2.3	0.8	75.1

Research Question 6

What factors influenced students' immediate career plans?

Students were presented with a list of factors believed to influence career plans and were asked to indicate on a four-point scale the degree to which each factor influenced their own immediate career plans. The factors that influenced most students were mother and father, followed by the value placed on education at home and academic ability. As can be seen in Table 4.33, 32.4% felt their mothers and 30.1% felt their fathers influenced their plans a lot. An additional 32.9% indicated their mother and 30.6% their father influenced their plans for next year to some degree.

27.7% of students indicated that the value placed on education at home had a lot of influence on their plans for next year while 21.4% felt it was their academic ability. When examined for at least some degree of influence, a slight majority (52%) indicated that it was their academic ability while a fewer number (50.2%) indicated it was the value placed on education at home that had at least some influence on their plans for the year after Level III. A number of factors such as friends, the value placed on work at home, teachers, high school program, economic conditions in Newfoundland and Labrador, entrance requirements and the desire to stay in or near home influenced at least a little the plans of 40% or more of the students. Two factors (i.e. guidance counsellor and people outside the community) influenced, to some degree, the plans of less than 20% of students.

Students were also asked to choose and rank the factors that had the most, the second most, and the third most influence on their plans for next year. Parents (37%), friends (33%)

and academic ability (30.6%) were listed most frequently as either the most, second most, or third most influential factors (see Table 4.34). Other influential factors cited by smaller numbers of students included mother, father, value of education in home, and desire to stay at or near home.

Table 4.33
Factors That Influenced Immediate Career Plans
(N = 173)

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	20	11.6	38	22.0	57	32.9	56	32.4	2	1.2
Father	20	11.6	44	25.4	53	30.6	52	30.1	4	2.3
Other family member	61	35.3	44	25.4	47	27.2	15	8.7	6	3.5
Teacher	68	39.3	53	30.6	37	21.4	7	4.0	8	4.6
Guidance counsellor	105	60.7	30	17.3	20	11.6	10	5.8	8	4.6
Friends	29	16.8	57	32.9	61	35.3	21	12.1	5	2.9
Person in community	103	59.5	25	14.5	25	14.5	11	6.4	9	5.2
Person outside community	104	60.1	32	18.5	18	10.4	9	5.2	10	5.8
High school program	80	46.2	41	23.7	33	19.1	11	6.4	8	4.6
Academic ability	41	23.7	34	19.7	53	30.6	37	21.4	8	4.6
Economic conditions in Newfoundland and Labrador	82	47.4	34	19.7	34	19.7	13	7.5	10	5.8

(continued)

Table 4.33 continued

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Entrance requirements to post-secondary education	78	45.1	36	20.8	30	17.3	19	11.0	10	5.8
Desire to stay home or near home	92	53.2	36	20.8	22	12.7	16	9.2	7	4.0
Family financial situation	93	53.8	30	17.3	25	14.5	14	8.1	11	6.4
Personal financial situation	83	48.0	36	20.8	24	13.9	16	9.2	14	8.1
Value placed on education in home	46	26.6	32	18.5	39	22.5	48	27.7	8	4.6
Value placed on work in home	65	37.6	27	15.6	42	24.3	30	17.3	9	5.2

Table 4.34
Factors That Influenced Plans the Most
(N = 173)

Factor	Most		Second Most		Third Most	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	22	12.7	9	5.2	5	2.9
Father	9	5.2	16	9.2	9	5.2
Other family member	10	5.8	4	2.3	7	4.0
Teacher	1	0.6	4	2.3	6	3.5
Guidance counsellor	0	0.0	4	2.3	4	2.3
Friends	11	6.4	17	9.8	29	16.8
Person in community	5	2.9	5	2.9	3	1.7
Person outside community	1	0.6	5	2.9	1	0.6
High school program	5	2.9	4	2.3	5	2.9
Academic ability	13	7.5	22	12.7	18	10.4
Economic conditions in Newfoundland & Labrador	3	1.7	6	3.5	4	2.3
Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	5	2.9	8	4.6	7	4.0
Desire to stay home	7	4.0	5	2.9	6	3.5
Family financial situation	5	2.9	3	1.7	5	2.9
Personal financial situation	4	2.3	5	2.9	4	2.3
Value on education at home	14	8.1	14	8.1	14	8.1
Value on work at home	1	0.6	6	3.5	8	4.6
Parents	40	23.1	19	11.0	5	2.9
Myself	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
No response	16	9.2	17	9.8	33	19.1

Research Question 7

What factors did students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans?

Some of the potential problems or concerns believed to be related to deciding career plans were listed and students were asked to indicate how much of a problem each was in their career decision-making plans. As displayed in Table 4.35. the cost of furthering education was most problematic since 25.4% indicated it was a serious problem. 13.9% of the students indicated that knowing what interested them posed a serious problem while another 44.5% felt it was somewhat a problem in their decision-making plans. While knowing what occupations are available and having to leave home were problematic for a small number of students (5.8% and 6.4% respectively), a larger number of students perceived these factors to have been somewhat a problem (58.4% and 37%) in their career decision-making plans.

The problems of least concern for most students were high school preparation (58.4%) and having to leave home (56.1%). However, approximately 41% to 64% indicated each of the factors listed was at least somewhat of a problem for them in their career decision plans for next year.

Table 4.35
Problems in Deciding Career Plans
(N = 173)

Potential Problem	Not a problem		Somewhat problem		Serious problem		No response	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
The costs of furthering my education	62	35.8	66	38.2	44	25.4	1	0.6
Knowing what interests me	71	41.0	77	44.5	24	13.9	1	0.6
Having to leave home	97	56.1	64	37.0	11	6.4	1	0.6
Knowing what careers available	61	35.3	101	58.4	10	5.8	1	0.6
High school preparation	101	58.4	67	38.7	4	2.3	1	0.6

Research Question 8

What are students' perceptions regarding their parents' level of agreement with immediate career plans?

Students were asked about each of their parents' level of agreement with their immediate career plans. Table 4.36 shows that the majority of respondents indicated that both parents were in agreement with their plans. A large majority of students thought their mothers (86.1%) and fathers (86.7%) at least mostly agreed with their plans. Less than 10% of the students indicated that either of their parents disagreed somewhat with their decisions.

Table 4.36
Parental Level of Agreement
(N = 173)

Parent	Agrees completely		Agrees mostly		Disagrees Some		Disagrees A lot		Doesn't apply		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	110	63.6	39	22.5	17	9.8	0	0.0	5	2.9	1	0.6
Father	106	61.3	44	25.4	12	6.9	1	0.6	8	4.6	1	0.6

Research Question 9

What are students' perceptions regarding what their parents think they should do immediately after high school?

The question "What do your parents think you should do after high school graduation?" was presented to students. They were asked to respond for each parent by selecting the appropriate statements listed in Table 4.37. The largest number of students indicated that their mother (44.5%) or father (47.4%) would definitely like for them to further their education while an additional 26% of mothers and 19.7% of fathers insisted their Level III student continue their education.

Overall, more than two thirds of students felt that their mothers (77.4%) and fathers (72.3%) at least might like for them to continue their education after high school graduation. Less than 15% of students believed that either their mother (10.4%) or father (12.1%) wanted them to start working after high school graduation while an even smaller number thought their mother (4.6%) or father (5.2%) wanted them to work and continue their education at the same time.

Table 4.37
Parents Thoughts on What Student Should Do Next Year
(N = 173)

Response	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Start working for pay	18	10.4	21	12.1
Insist on continuing education	45	26.0	34	19.7
Definitely like me to continue education	77	44.5	82	47.4
Might like me to continue education	12	6.9	9	5.2
Work and continue education	8	4.6	9	5.2
Doesn't care what I do	5	2.9	7	4.0
Don't know what they want me to do	2	1.2	4	2.3
Doesn't apply	2	1.2	3	1.7
No response	4	2.3	4	2.3

Research Question 10

What are students' perceptions regarding their self-esteem and community attachment?

To assess in a general and exploratory way the self esteem of respondents, students were presented with a list of positively worded self-esteem statements as listed in Table 4.38 and were asked to indicate their level of agreement using a 5-point Likhert scale. The majority of students felt positive about themselves as defined by each of the seven self-esteem statements. Over three quarters of the students (ranging from 77.5% to 89.6%) indicated agreement with each statement.

Table 4.38
Statements of Positive Self-Esteem
(N = 173)

Statement: I am...	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a good learner	45	26.0	110	63.6	14	8.1	3	1.7	0	0.0	1	0.6
happy with myself, for the most part	42	24.3	106	61.3	17	9.8	6	3.5	1	0.6	1	0.6
able to do whatever I put my mind to	45	26.0	97	56.1	27	15.6	2	1.2	1	0.6	1	0.6
capable of training for any occupation I like	69	39.9	70	40.5	29	16.8	4	2.3	0	0.0	1	0.6
as academically capable as most of my classmates	55	31.8	79	45.7	29	16.8	7	4.0	2	1.2	1	0.6
liked by my peers	33	19.1	112	64.7	23	13.3	3	1.7	1	0.6	1	0.6
likely to be successful at whatever I choose to do in life	60	34.7	81	46.8	29	16.8	2	1.2	0	0.0	1	0.6

To assess in a general and exploratory manner the community attachment of students, four statements (see Table 4.39) were presented and students were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each one using a 5-point Likert scale. With the exception of one statement, a minority of students (ranging from 20.2% to 29.5%) indicated some level of community attachment with respect to their future career possibilities as defined by each statement. The exception was that a majority of students (58.4%) indicated they presently liked living in their respective community.

Table 4.39
Statements of Community Attachment
(N = 173)

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		No response	
	Freq.	%	*Freq.*	%	*Freq.*	%	*Freq.*	%	*Freq.*	%	*Freq.*	%
I like living in my community	33	19.9	68	39.3	33	19.1	26	15.0	12	6.9	1	0.6
I feel torn having to leave to find work	12	6.9	32	18.5	34	19.7	54	31.2	40	23.1	1	0.6
I feel torn having to leave to further my education	9	5.2	26	15.0	38	22	57	32.9	42	24.3	1	0.6
I prefer to stay in/near my home community to work	18	10.4	33	19.1	41	23.7	39	22.5	41	23.7	1	0.6

Research Question 11

Are there gender differences on students' career aspirations?

Most respondents (82%) gave at least one occupational choice. It was therefore considered appropriate to compare gender differences based on initial choices. Differences were significant at the $p < .05$ level. (Note: the "no responses" were excluded from the analysis along with occupation choices made by a total of fewer than five respondents in order to strengthen the analysis.)

When examined by gender, there were differences in several occupational groups. As can be seen in Table 4.40, more rural females than males aspired to occupations in managerial and administration, social science, teaching, medicine and health, and artistic and literary categories. The occupational categories that were listed by significantly higher number of males were natural science, engineering, and mathematics, forestry and logging, product fabrication, transport equipment, and construction trades. These occupational groups have typically been male dominant. None of the males aspired to teaching and related occupations while a number of females (5.4%) aspired to managerial and administration type occupations. As well, while males most frequently aspired to the traditionally male dominated category of occupations in natural science, engineering and mathematics (29.0%), females aspired most frequently to occupations in the traditionally female dominated category of medicine and health.

A chi-square analysis of the GED and SVP levels of students' choices found no significant gender differences at the 0.05 level. However, as can be seen in Table 4.41 and

4.42. higher proportions of females aspired to occupations with high GED (>4) and SVP (>6) levels.

Table 4.40
Occupational Choices by Gender
(N = 143)

Occupational Group	Males (N = 69)		Females (N = 74)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	1	1.4	4	5.4
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	20	29.0	6	8.1
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	2	2.9	13	17.6
Occupations in religion	2	2.9	1	1.4
Teaching and related occupations	0	0.0	8	10.8
Occupations in medicine and health	6	8.7	21	28.4
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	3	4.3	6	8.1
Occupations in sport and recreation	2	2.9	0	0.0
Clerical and related occupations	0	0.0	1	1.4
Sales occupations	0	0.0	1	1.4
Service occupations	7	10.1	9	12.2
Farming, horticultural and animal-husbandry occupations	0	0.0	1	1.4
Forestry and logging occupations	4	5.8	0	0.0
Mining and quarrying including oil and gas field occupations	2	2.9	0	0.0

(continued)

Table 4.40 continued

Occupational Group	Males (N = 69)		Females (N = 74)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Processing occupations	0	0.0	1	1.4
Machining and related occupations	2	2.9	0	0.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	7	10.1	1	1.4
Construction trades occupations	3	4.3	0	0.0
Transport equipment and operating occupations	7	10.1	1	1.4
Don't know	1	1.4	0	0.0

$x^2 = 62.22$ $p = 0.000$

Table 4.41
GED Levels by Gender
(N = 143)

GED	Males (N = 69)		Females (N = 74)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	1	1.4	0	0.0
2	5	7.2	1	1.4
3	13	18.8	11	14.9
4	14	20.3	10	13.5
5	26	37.7	36	48.6
6	10	14.5	16	21.6

$x^2 = 7.332$ $p = 0.197$

Table 4.42
SVP Levels by Gender
(N = 143)

SVP	Males (N = 69)		Females (N = 74)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
2	1	1.4	0	0.0
3	4	5.8	3	4.1
4	4	5.8	4	5.4
5	5	7.2	1	1.4
6	16	23.2	10	13.5
7	18	26.1	31	41.9
8	19	27.5	24	32.4
9	1	1.4	1	1.4

$x^2 = 10.06$ $p = 0.261$

Research Question 12

Are there gender differences on students' immediate career plans?

A comparison of immediate plans by gender revealed no significant differences. However, as Table 4.43 shows, a higher proportion of females (81%) than males (68.5%) planned to further their education. As well, higher proportions of males planned to return to high school (5.6% versus 0%) or had no plans at all (4.5% versus 1.2%).

While gender differences were not statistically significant with respect to the type and location of post-secondary institutions planned on being attended by those furthering their education, it should be noted that a larger proportion of females (61.8%) than males (47.5%)

planned to attend Memorial University of Newfoundland (see Table 4.44). However, a larger proportion of males (24.6%) than females (11.8%) planned to attend a college in Newfoundland and Labrador.

Table 4.43
Immediate Plans by Gender
(N = 173)

Plans	Males (N = 89)		Females (N = 84	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Furthering education	61	68.5	68	81.0
Working	15	16.9	11	13.1
Taking a year off	4	4.5	4	4.8
Returning to high school	5	5.6	0	0.0
No plans	4	4.5	1	1.2

$x^2 = 7.66$ $p = 0.105$

Table 4.44
Type and Location of Institution Planned to Attend by Gender
(N = 129)

Institution	Males (N = 61)		Females (N = 68)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Memorial University of Newfoundland	29	47.5	42	61.8
University outside of province	8	13.1	11	16.2
Public or private college in province	15	24.6	8	11.8
Public or private college outside province	6	9.8	6	8.8
Don't know	3	4.9	1	1.5

$x^2 = 7.71$ $p = 0.260$

Research Question 13

Are there gender differences on students' career expectations?

Each of the three component aspects of this variable was examined for significant gender differences. These included: expected future employment status, educational and/or occupational expectations, and residence location. With respect to expected future employment status, significant gender differences existed. While approximately 75% of both males and females expected to be employed full-time in five to ten years, significantly more females (14.5% compared to 2.2%) indicated they expected to be employed full-time and a homemaker (see Table 4.45). More males than females expected to be employed part-time, or seasonally and collecting E.I., while approximately equal numbers of both expected to be employed part-time, or seasonally and a homemaker. Slightly more females expected to further their education or be employed and furthering their education.

There were significant differences with respect to the occupational expectations of those who indicated they would be employed whether full or part-time in five to ten years. Out of this number, more females (93.1% compared to 75.7%) thought they would be employed in the same occupation they aspired to in Level III whereas more males (24.3% compared to 6.9%) felt employment would be in an occupation different than what they aspired to in Level III (see Table 4.46).

Table 4.45
Employment Expectations by Gender
(N = 172)

Employment expectations	Males (N = 89)		Females (N = 83)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Full-time employment	66	74.2	50	60.2
Part-time/seasonal and collecting E.I.	6	6.7	0	0.0
Full-time and homemaker	2	2.2	12	14.5
Part-time/seasonal and homemaker	3	3.4	4	4.8
Furthering education	10	11.2	12	14.5
Employed and furthering education	2	2.2	4	4.8
Unemployed but homemaker	0	0.0	1	1.2

$x^2 = 17.15$ $p = 0.01$

Table 4.46
Future Occupation Expectations by Gender
(N = 146)

Future expectations	Males (N = 74)		Females (N = 72)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Same	56	75.7	67	93.1
Different	18	24.3	5	6.9

$x^2 = 8.31$ $p = 0.00$

As can be seen in Table 4.47, no significant gender differences were evident with respect to the expectations of future residence location. In fact, approximately equal proportions of males and females expected to be living in each of the areas listed.

Table 4.47
Future Expectations of Residence Location by Gender
((N = 172)

Location	Males (N = 88)		Females (N = 84)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Hometown	15	17.0	13	15.5
Within province, but not hometown	12	13.6	11	13.1
Outside province	60	68.2	59	70.2
Don't know	1	1.1	1	1.2

Research Question 14

Are there gender differences on students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation?

A chi-square analysis at the 0.05 level did not reveal statistically significant gender differences in students' reasons for not continuing education immediately after high school graduation (see Table 4.48), or with respect to their most important reason for not continuing their education (see Table 4.49). There were, however, some interesting observable differences. A larger proportion of males than females (32.1% compared to 6.7%) felt they did not have the ability to do well in post-secondary studies as a reason for not pursuing further education immediately after high school graduation while more females (33.3% versus 21.4%) indicated they did not have the grades to meet entrance requirements of post-secondary institutions as a reason. Interestingly, a higher proportion of males (14.3% versus 6.7%) indicated having to leave their home community, having no desire to further their education at this time, and feeling further education was unnecessary as reasons for planning

not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation.

Although not statistically significant at the 0.05 level, a higher percentage of males (15.4% versus 0.0%) cited educational costs, lack of ability, and the belief that further education is not necessary for them to get a job as the most important reasons for not continuing their education at this time. Indecision about what program to do, however, was cited by a higher proportion of females (37.5%) than males (7.7%). Other observable differences can be seen in Table 4.49. Note that "no responses" and reasons cited by a total of less than five students were excluded to strengthen the analysis.

Table 4.48
Reasons for Not Continuing Education by Gender
(N = 43)

Reason	Males (N = 28)		Females (N = 15)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
It costs too much money	7	25	4	26.7	0.01	0.91
I may not have enough money for school	4	14.3	2	13.3	0.007	0.93
I would have to leave home community	4	14.3	1	6.7	0.55	0.46
I feel I don't have the ability to do well	9	32.1	1	6.7	3.55	0.06

(continued)

Table 4.48 continued

Reason	Males (N = 28)		Females (N = 15)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
I haven't decided on a program	13	46.4	6	40.0	0.164	0.69
I don't have grades to meet entrance requirements	6	21.4	5	33.3	0.727	0.39
I am needed at home	2	7.1	0	0.0	1.124	0.29
I have no desire to further education	4	14.3	1	6.7	0.552	0.46
I feel furthering my education is not necessary to get a job	5	17.9	1	6.7	1.019	0.31
I have a chance to go to work	9	32.1	5	33.3	0.006	0.94
I am getting married	0	0.0	1	6.7	1.911	0.17
Other	5	17.9	3	20	0.03	0.86

Students could give more than one reason. The totals for each reason are displayed in the table.

Table 4.49
Most Important Reason for Not Continuing Education Next Year by Gender (N = 21)

Reason	Males (N = 13)		Females (N = 8)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
It costs too much money	2	15.4	0	0.0
I feel I don't have the ability	2	15.4	0	0.0
I haven't decided on a program	1	7.7	3	37.5

(continued)

Table 4.49 continued

Reason	Males (N = 13)		Females (N = 8)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I don't have the grades to meet entrance requirements	2	15.4	0	0.0
I am needed at home	1	7.7	0	0.0
I have no desire to further my education at this time	1	7.7	0	0.0
I feel further education is not necessary to get a job	2	15.4	0	0.0
I have a chance to work	2	15.4	1	12.5
I am getting married	0	0.0	1	12.5

$x^2 = 9.904$ $p = 0.27$

Research Question 15

Are there gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans?

The pattern of responses by gender with respect to those factors perceived to have influenced immediate career plans did not vary much except for two (see Table 4.50). Significantly more females than males perceived that their mothers (42.9% versus 23.0%, $x^2 = 3.80$, $p < 0.05$) and academic ability (32.1% versus 12.3%, $x^2 = 10.23$, $p < 0.05$) had a lot of influence on their career plans for next year.

When differences by gender were examined on those factors having at least a little influence, significantly more females (44.0% versus 28.4%) indicated their guidance

counsellor had influenced their immediate career plans at least a little. A significantly higher percentage of males (55.7%) than females (40.0%), however, felt their personal financial situation had a least a little influence on next year's plans.

Although the differences were not statistically significant, more females perceived their high school program, academic ability, the economic condition in Newfoundland and Labrador, and the value placed on education in the home had at least a little influence on their plans while more males perceived a family member other than their parents and a person in the community influenced their plans at least a little (see Table 4.51).

As Table 4.52 shows, there were statistically significant gender differences on factors perceived by students to have influenced their immediate career plans the most. Mother was listed by a greater proportion of females (18.8%) than males (9.1%) while father was cited by more males (10.4% versus 1.3%) as having influenced immediate career plans the most. As well, a higher percentage of males (10.4%) than females (2.5%) perceived that a family member other than a parent had the most influence on next year's plans.

Table 4.50
Factors That Influenced Immediate Career Plans by Gender

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Mother	10.3	28.7	37.9	23.0	13.1	15.5	28.6	42.9	9.93	0.02*
Father	8.1	29.1	34.9	27.9	15.7	22.9	27.7	33.7	3.80	0.28
Other family member	31.3	31.3	26.5	10.8	41.7	21.4	29.8	7.1	3.57	0.31
Teacher	43.2	38.3	16.0	2.5	39.3	26.2	28.6	6.0	6.09	0.11
Guidance counsellor	71.6	14.8	8.6	4.9	56.0	21.4	15.5	7.1	4.50	0.21
Friend(s)	17.9	34.5	38.1	9.5	16.7	33.3	34.5	15.5	1.40	0.71
Person in community	55.6	18.5	18.5	7.4	69.9	12.0	12.0	6.0	3.71	0.29
Person outside community	63.0	24.7	9.9	2.5	64.6	14.6	12.2	8.5	5.03	0.17
High school program	55.6	19.8	18.5	6.2	41.7	29.8	21.4	7.1	3.54	0.32
Academic ability	30.9	23.5	33.3	12.3	19.0	17.9	31.0	32.1	10.23	0.02*
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	56.3	21.3	17.5	5.0	44.6	20.5	24.1	10.8	3.71	0.30

(continued)

Table 4.50 continued

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	49.4	24.7	18.5	7.4	46.3	19.5	18.3	15.9	3.07	0.38
Desire to stay home or near home	51.8	20.5	14.5	13.3	59.0	22.9	12.0	6.0	2.93	0.40
Financial situation of family	61.3	21.3	12.5	5.0	53.7	15.9	18.3	12.2	4.35	0.23
Personal financial situation	44.3	27.8	17.7	10.1	60.0	17.5	12.5	10.0	4.48	0.22
Value placed on education in home	34.1	22.0	20.7	23.2	21.7	16.9	26.5	34.9	5.39	0.14
Value placed on work in home	42.0	12.3	29.6	16.0	37.3	20.5	21.7	20.5	3.32	0.34

*statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

Table 4.51
Factors That Had at Least a Little Influence on Immediate Plans by Gender

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Mother	78	89.6	73	86.9	0.313	0.58
Father	79	91.9	70	84.3	2.29	0.13
Other family member	57	68.7	49	58.3	1.93	0.17
Teacher	46	56.8	51	60.7	0.262	0.61
Guidance Counsellor	23	28.4	37	44.0	4.37	0.03*
Friend(s)	69	82.1	70	83.3	0.04	0.84
Person in community	36	44.4	25	30.1	3.60	0.06
Person outside community	30	37.0	29	35.4	0.05	0.82
High school program	36	44.4	49	58.3	3.19	0.07
Academic ability	56	69.1	68	81.0	3.08	0.08
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	35	43.8	46	55.4	2.22	0.14

(continued)

Table 4.51 continued

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	41	50.6	44	53.7	0.151	0.7
Desire to stay home or near home	40	48.2	34	41.0	0.88	0.35
Financial situation of family	31	38.8	38	46.3	0.95	0.33
Personal financial situation	44	55.7	32	40	3.93	0.04*
Value placed on education in home	54	65.9	65	78.3	3.19	0.07
Value placed on work in home	47	58.0	52	62.7	0.37	0.55

*statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

Table 4.52
Factors That Influenced Plans the Most by Gender
(N = 157)

Factor	Male (N = 77)		Female (N=80)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	7	9.1	15	18.8
Father	8	10.4	1	1.3
Other family member	8	10.4	2	2.5
Teacher	0	0.0	1	1.3
Friend(s)	7	9.1	4	5.0
Person in community	3	3.9	2	2.5
Person outside community	0	0.0	1	1.3
High school program	0	0.0	5	6.3
Academic ability	6	7.8	7	8.8
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	1	1.3	2	2.5
Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	2	2.6	3	3.8
Desire to stay home or near home	4	5.2	3	3.8
Financial situation of family	2	2.6	3	3.8
Personal financial situation	4	5.2	0	0.0
Value placed on education in home	6	7.8	8	10.0
Value placed on work in home	0	0.0	1	1.3
Parents	18	23.4	22	27.5
Myself	1	1.3	0	0.0

$x^2 = 27.56$ $p = 0.05$

Research Question 16

Are there gender differences on factors perceived by students to be problematic in deciding career plans?

No statistically significant gender differences were found at the $p<0.05$ level with respect to factors perceived to be problematic in deciding career plans. As Table 4.53 shows, however, observable gender differences did exist in three areas. A higher proportion of males than females perceived high school preparation (47.8% versus 34.5%) and knowing what interests me (63.6% versus 53.6%) to have been at least somewhat problematic as they endeavoured to decide their career plans. Having to leave home, however, was considered at least somewhat problematic by more of the females (50%) than males (37.5%).

Table 4.53
Problems in Deciding Career Plans by Gender
(N = 172)

Potential problem	Male (N = 88)			Female (N = 84)			x^2	p
	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %		
High school preparation	52.3	45.5	2.3	65.5	32.1	2.4	3.23	0.20
Having to leave home	62.5	33.0	4.5	50.0	41.7	8.3	3.03	0.22
Knowing what interests me	36.4	47.7	15.9	46.4	41.7	11.9	1.9	0.39
Knowing what careers are available	36.4	59.1	4.5	34.5	58.3	7.1	0.54	0.76
Costs of furthering education	36.4	39.8	23.9	35.7	36.9	27.4	0.31	0.86

THE RURAL SAMPLE

Demographic Profile

As described in the demographic section of the combined sample, information from the first eight questions was used to provide a basic demographic profile of the rural sample.

Gender and Area

As Table 4.54 illustrates, the distribution of the rural sample by gender was fairly even with 50.9% males and 49.1% females. In fact, the rural sample was more evenly distributed by gender than either the urban or the combined sample.

Table 4.54
Combined Gender and Area Distribution of Sample

Gender	Rural (N = 106)		Urban (N = 67)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Male	54	50.9	35	52.2	89	51.4
		(60.7)		(39.3)		(100)
Female	52	49.1	32	47.8	84	48.6
		(61.9)		(38.1)		(100)
Total	106	100	67	100	173	100
		(61.3)		(38.7)		(100)

Age

Students' ages ranged from 16 years to 20 years old and old. The majority of students (85.8%) were in the 17 - 18 age bracket with half of the students (50.9%) 17 years old while an additional one third (34.9%) were 18. More of the males were 17 while a greater proportion of the females were 18 and 19 (see Table 4.55). Differences were not significant.

Table 4.55
Age Distribution
(N = 106)

Age	Males (N = 54)		Females (N = 52)		Total (N = 106)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
16	1	1.9	2	3.8	3	2.8
17	29	53.7	25	48.1	54	50.9
18	18	33.3	19	36.5	37	34.9
19	4	7.4	6	11.5	10	9.4
20+	2	3.7	0	0.0	2	1.9

$x^2 = 3.02$ $p = 0.55$

Grades

As Table 4.59 shows, the greatest number of students for both years (42.5% and 49.1%) indicated they had overall averages of 80 and above. Almost an equal number of students for both years reported averages that were 65 and above. No students indicated they had an overall failing average for either year.

There were statistically significant gender differences on averages for both years.

Table 4.56 shows that significantly more females (61.5% versus 24.1%) had overall averages for last year in the 80+ grade range while a higher percentage of males (75.9% versus 38.5%) reported their last year's average below 80 ($x^2 = 17.88$, $p = 0.00$)

With respect to this year's average, significantly more females (71.2%) than males (27.8%) indicated an overall average of 80 and above. The below 80 grade range, however, was significantly dominated by a higher proportion of males (see Table 4.57).

Table 4.56
Average Last Year of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Average	Male (N = 54)		Female (N =52)		Total (N = 106)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	13	24.1	32	61.5	45	42.5
65-79	26	48.1	17	32.7	43	40.6
50-64	15	27.8	3	5.8	18	17.0
49 or below	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 17.88$ $p = 0.00$

Table 4.57
Average This Year of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Average	Male (N = 54)		Female (N =52)		Total (N = 106)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	15	27.8	37	71.2	52	49.1
65-79	26	48.1	9	17.3	35	33.0
50-64	13	24.1	6	11.5	19	17.9
49 or below	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 20.11$ $p = 0.00$

Table 4.58
Comparison of Average Both Years of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Average	Last year		This year	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	45	42.5	52	49.1
65-79	43	40.6	35	33.0
50-64	18	17.0	19	17.9
49 or below	0	0.0	0	0.0

Parent Education Level

Table 4.59 displays the educational level of parents' for the rural sample. Almost two thirds of students indicated that their mothers (65.1%) and almost half their fathers (49.1%) had completed at least high school graduation. An equal number of mothers and fathers were either university or college graduates (23.6%). Although the number of mothers who had completed either some university or college level of education (13.2%) was low, it was twice as many fathers (6.6%). While a fairly substantial number of parents had completed less than a high school education, a much higher percentage of fathers (48%) than mothers (34%) were in this category.

Table 4.59
Education Level of Parents of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Education Level	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Some schooling	36	34.0	51	48.1
Graduated from high school	30	28.3	20	18.9
Some university education	7	6.6	4	3.8
Some college education	7	6.6	3	2.8
University graduate	13	12.3	14	13.2
College graduate	12	11.3	11	10.4
Don't know	1	0.9	2	1.9
No response	0	0.0	1	0.9

Parent Employment and Occupational Status

As can be seen in Table 4.60, more than half of the students reported that their fathers were employed full time (57.5%) while slightly less than half of students' mothers (47.2%) had full time employment. The number of fathers and mothers with part time employment was about equal (29.2% and 27.4%). The number of unemployed mothers was fairly high (24.5%) and more than doubled the number of unemployed fathers (10.4%).

Table 4.60
Employment Status of Rural Parents
(N = 106)

Employment status	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Employed full-time	61	57.5	50	47.2
Employed part-time	31	29.2	29	27.4
Unemployed	11	10.4	26	24.5
Retired	1	0.9	0	0.0
No response	2	1.9	1	0.9

Parent occupations were grouped according to the major group codes found in the Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO, 1989). As can be seen in Table 4.61, parental occupations were classified under 18 different occupational groups. The most frequently cited occupation for fathers were in forestry and logging (20.8%) followed by occupations in constructions trades (14.2%), mining (10.4%), product fabricating, and

teaching (9.4% each). Only 6.6% of fathers had an occupation in the fishing industry.

Occupations in the service industry (14.2%) were most frequently cited for mothers. This was followed by clerical occupations (9.4%), occupations in medicine and health (9.4%), sales (8.5%), and teaching (8.5%).

While the percentage of each parent in teaching was about equal, more of the fathers were in traditionally male-dominated occupational groups such as fishing, forestry and logging, construction and mining whereas more mothers were in the traditionally female dominated occupational groups which include nurses, cosmetologists, and sales/store clerks (see Table 6.61).

Table 4.61
Parent Occupation Group of Rural Sample
(N = 106)

Occupational Groups	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	3	2.8	7	6.6
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	1	0.9	1	0.9
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	0	0.0	2	1.9
Occupations in religion	2	1.9	1	0.9

(continued)

Table 4.61 continued

Occupational group	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Teaching and related occupations	10	9.4	9	8.5
Occupations in medicine and health	4	3.8	10	9.4
Clerical and related occupations	0	0.0	10	9.4
Sales occupations	3	2.8	9	8.5
Service occupations	1	0.9	15	14.2
Fishing, trapping and related occupations	7	6.6	2	1.9
Forestry and logging occupations	22	20.8	0	0.0
Mining and quarrying including oil and gas field occupations	11	10.4	1	0.9
Processing occupations	2	1.9	7	6.6
Machining and related occupations	1	0.9	0	0.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	10	9.4	3	2.8
Construction trades occupations	15	14.2	2	1.9
Transport equipment operating occupations	3	2.8	0	0.0
Occupations not elsewhere classified	3	2.8	4	3.8
No response	8	7.5	23	21.7

As shown in Table 4.62, the GED levels for the majority of both parents' occupations were generally low. 59.2% of the father's occupations and 53% of the mother's occupations had a GED of less than four. GED levels for 3.1% of the fathers' occupations and 1.2% of

the mothers' occupations could not be determined because they owned businesses that were uncodeable.

The SVP time for parents' occupations were about evenly distributed between preparation times of up to one year and those from one to ten years. 46% of fathers' occupations and 53% of mothers' required a maximum SVP level of five while 51% of the fathers' and 46% of the mothers' occupations had SVP levels of at least six (see Table 4.63). More of the fathers' occupations had high SVP levels of six and above than the mothers' occupations. SVP levels could not be determined for small numbers of the fathers' (3.1%) and mothers' (1.2%) occupations.

Table 4.62
GED Level of Rural Parents' Occupations

GED level	Father (N = 98)		Mother (N = 83)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	4	4.1	5	6.0
2	30	30.6	24	28.9
3	24	24.5	15	18.1
4	17	17.3	18	21.7
5	17	17.3	19	22.9
6	3	3.1	1	1.2
8	3	3.1	1	1.2

GED level is based on both formal and informal aspects of education which contribute to a worker's reasoning development, ability to follow instructions, and the acquisition of mathematical and language skills.

Table 4.63
SVP Level of Rural Parents' Occupations

SVP level	Father (N = 98)		Mother (N = 83)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	3	3.1	1	1.2
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	5	5.1	28	33.7
3	22	22.4	4	4.8
4	10	10.2	2	2.4
5	8	8.2	10	12.0
6	8	8.2	11	13.3
7	33	33.7	23	27.7
8	9	9.2	4	4.8
9	0	0.0	0	0.0

SVP level is based on the time required to learn the skills and techniques needed for an occupation.

Research Question 1

What are the students' career aspirations?

The maximum number of occupational choices listed by students was two. Most students (78.3%) gave one choice while 9.4% gave two and 12.3% gave no choice. (See Table 4.64)

Table 4.64
Number of Occupational Choices by Rural Students
(N = 106)

Number of choices	Frequency	%
One	83	78.3
Two	10	9.4
No response	13	12.3

When student occupational choices were categorized according to the major group codes of the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO, 1989), twenty categories emerged as displayed in Table 4.65. Almost half of student choices (48%) were distributed among medicine and health (17%), natural science, engineering and mathematics (16%), and service (15.1%) occupations. The number of choices within other occupational fields varied from 8.5% in social sciences to less than 1% in fields such as religion, sales, clerical, and farming/horticulture. Few aspired to occupations in mining (1.9%) and no students indicated an occupational choice within the fishery.

Table 4.65
Occupational Choices of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Occupational group	Frequency	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	3	2.8
Occupations in natural science, engineering and mathematics	17	16.0
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	9	8.5
Occupations in religion	2	1.9
Teaching and related occupations	5	4.7
Occupations in medicine and health	18	17.0
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	4	3.8
Occupations in sport and recreations	1	0.9
Clerical and related occupations	1	0.9
Sales occupations	1	0.9
Service occupations	16	15.1
Farming, horticultural and animal-husbandry occupations	1	0.9
Forestry and logging occupations	4	3.8
Mining and quarrying including oil and gas field occupations	2	1.9
Processing occupations	1	0.9
Machining and related occupations	2	1.9
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	6	5.7
Construction trades occupations	4	3.8

(continued)

Table 4.65 continued

Occupational group	Frequency	%
Transport equipment operating occupations	4	3.8
Occupations not elsewhere classified	2	1.9
No response	2	1.9

Up to two choices are included in the totals.

As Table 4.66 shows, the most frequent General Education and Development (GED) levels of occupational choices made by rural students were generally high. The majority of chosen occupations had GED levels of five (39.8%) or six (16.1%).

The most frequently cited SVP levels were generally high. While the most frequently cited SVP level was seven (35.5%), level eight was the second most frequently cited (26.9%) followed by level six (23.7%). Occupations with SVP levels lower than six were cited less frequently (see Table 4.67).

Table 4.66
GED Levels of Occupational Choices of Rural Students
(N = 93)

GED	Frequency	%
2	5	5.4
3	23	24.7
4	21	22.6
5	37	39.8
6	15	16.1
8	2	2.2

Note: Totals include up to two choices.

Table 4.67
SVP Levels of Occupational Choices of Rural Students
(N = 93)

SVP	Frequency	%
0	2	2.2
3	5	5.4
4	7	7.5
5	6	6.5
6	22	23.7
7	33	35.5
8	25	26.9
9	3	3.2

Note: Totals include up to two choices.

When asked how long they have been interested in their occupational choice almost (40%) indicated greater than two years. The majority of students (74.2%) felt they were interested in the occupation for at least one year (see Table 4.68). As Table 4.69 shows, almost half the students (48.4%) became interested in their occupational choice through factors other than the people listed. Some of the factors mentioned included personal interests, school courses, reading and research, television, volunteer work, a sense of personal calling, and an uncle. The number of students who indicated that they became interested in their desired occupation through either a teacher or guidance counsellor was low.

Table 4.68
Length of Occupational Interest for Rural Students
(N = 93)

Length of Interest	Total	
	Freq.	%
Less than 1 year	16	17.2
1 - 2 years	32	34.4
More than 2 years	37	39.8
Don't know	8	8.6

Table 4.69
How Rural Students Became Interested in Occupational Choice
(N = 93)

How	Frequency	%
Other	45	48.4
Friends	17	18.3
Combination of	12	12.9
Parents	11	11.8
Teacher	4	4.3
Guidance Counsellor	3	3.2
No response	1	1.1

Table 4.70 shows that over half the students (59.1%) knew someone in the occupation they desired to have in five to ten years. When asked if they had discussed the occupation with that person, most (70.9%) said they did (see Table 4.72).

Table 4.70
Student Knew Someone in Chosen Occupation (Rural)
(N = 93)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	55	59.1
No	38	40.9

Table 4.71
Student Discussed with Someone in Desired Occupation (Rural)
(N = 55)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	39	70.9
No	16	29.1

Research Question 2

What are the students' immediate career plans?

As can be seen in Table 4.72, over two thirds (69.8%) of the rural students planned to further their education immediately after high school graduation while 17% indicated they planned to work. The remaining 13.3% either had no plan, planned to return to high school or planned to take the year off.

Table 4.72
Immediate Career Plans of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Immediate plan	Freq.	%
Further education or training	74	69.8
Work	18	17.0
Take year off	6	5.7
Return to high school	4	3.8
No plans	4	3.8

Of those students who indicated plans to further their education or training next year, 43.2% planned to attend Memorial University of Newfoundland while an additional 12.2% planned to attend a university outside Newfoundland. Almost three quarters (72.9%) of the students planning to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation planned to attend an institution within the province (see Table 4.73).

Table 4.73
Institution Planned to Attend by Rural Students
(N = 74)

Institution	Frequency	%
Memorial University	32	43.2
University outside Newfoundland & Labrador	9	12.2
Public or private college in province	22	29.7
Public or private college outside province	8	10.8
Don't know	3	4.1

Out of the number of rural students who planned not to further their education next year, about 65% planned to be working in some kind of occupation. Table 4.74 displays the occupational groups in which those students thought they might have jobs. The most frequently cited occupational category was sales (18.8%) followed by unclassified occupations (12.5%) such as manual labour and owning an unspecified business and construction trades (9.4%). The remaining number was equally distributed among the other listed categories. None of those students indicated that they thought they would have jobs in either fishing or mining. Most jobs cited were low paying with low GED and SVP levels.

When asked to indicate where they thought they would be employed in their jobs next year, over half (57.1%) indicated somewhere in Newfoundland and Labrador with the largest group (47.6%) expecting the job to be in the hometown area (see Table 4.75). Over one third (38.1%) expected to have an occupation that would take them outside the province.

Table 4.74
Jobs Expected Next Year by Rural Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education (N = 32)

Occupational Group	Frequency	%
Clerical and related occupations	1	3.1
Sales occupations	6	18.8
Service occupations	2	6.3
Forestry and logging occupations	1	3.1
Machining and related occupations	1	3.1
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	1	3.1
Construction trades occupations	3	9.4
Transport equipment operating occupations	1	3.1
Occupations not elsewhere classified	4	12.5
Don't know	1	3.1
No response	11	34.4

Table 4.75
Area Expected to Work by Rural Students Not Furthering Education
(N = 21)

Location	Frequency	%
Hometown area	10	47.6
Elsewhere in Newfoundland & Labrador	2	9.5
Outside of the province	8	38.1
No response	1	4.8

As to the post-secondary intentions of those students planning not to pursue education immediately after high school graduation, Table 4.76 shows that almost two-thirds (65.6%) expected to further their education at a later time while another 21.8% expressed uncertainty. 6.3% indicated they did not expect to further their education at all.

Table 4.76
Intentions of Rural Students to Further Education Later
(N = 32)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	21	65.6
No	2	6.3
Not sure	7	21.8
No response	2	6.3

Research Question 3

What are the students' future career expectations?

As with the combined samples, responses from three questions related to expected employment status, occupation, and general area of residence in five to ten years were used to answer this question. With respect to their expected employment status in five to ten years, 90.6% indicated they expect to have either full-time or part-time/seasonal employment. 81.1% expected to be employed full-time which included 8.5% who also expected to be a homemaker. While a small percentage (8.6%) expected to be furthering their education, no students thought they would be unemployed.

Table 4.77
Expected Employment Status of Rural Students in 5 -10 Years
(N = 106)

Employment Status	Freq.	%
Employed full-time	77	72.6
Employed full-time & homemaker	9	8.5
Furthering education	9	8.5
Employed part-time/seasonally & homemaker	6	5.7
Employed part-time/seasonally & collecting E.I.	4	3.8
No response	1	0.9

Those students who expected to be employed either full-time or part-time in five to ten years were asked whether or not their occupation would be the same as or different from

their desired occupation as identified earlier. As Table 4.78 shows, the majority of students (87.5%) expected their employment to be in the same occupation they earlier indicated they would like to have while 12.5% expected a different occupation.

Table 4.79 shows that out of those students who expected to have occupations different from their desired ones, the largest group (25%) indicated they did not know what that occupation would be. The most frequently cited occupational category was natural science, engineering and mathematics (16.7%) which included occupations in computer systems and programming. The other occupations were equally distributed among three categories (8.3% each) and included the following: welder, motor vehicle mechanic, and heavy equipment operator. As can be seen in Tables 4.80 and 4.81, while the GED levels for these occupations are generally low, the SVP time levels for the majority were high.

Table 4.78
Expected Occupation of Rural Students in 5-10 Years
(N = 96)

Occupation Expectation	Freq.	%
Same as previously identified	84	87.5
Different	12	12.5

Table 4.79
Different Occupations Expected by Rural Students in 5 - 10 Years
(N = 12)

Occupational Group	Freq.	%
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	2	16.7
Machining and related occupations	1	8.3
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	1	8.3
Construction trades occupations	1	8.3
Don't know	3	25.0
No response	4	33.3

Table 4.80
GED Level of Different Occupations Expected by Rural Students
(N = 8)

GED	Freq.	%
0	3	37.5
3	2	25
4	1	12.5
5	2	25

Table 4.81
SVP Level of Different Occupations Expected by Rural Students
(N = 8)

SVP	Freq.	%
0	3	37.5
6	2	25
7	2	25
8	1	12.5

Table 4.82 shows where the rural students expected to live in five to ten years. Almost three-quarters (73.6%) expected their area of residence to be outside Newfoundland and Labrador. Out of the remaining 26.4%, the majority of those (18.9%) felt they would be living in the province but not in or near their hometown.

Table 4.82
Expected Area of Residence for Rural Students in 5-10 Years
(N = 106)

Location	Freq.	%
Outside Newfoundland and Labrador	78	73.6
Other than hometown area in Newfoundland & Labrador	20	18.9
Hometown area in Newfoundland and Labrador	7	6.6
Don't know	1	0.9

Research Question 4

What are the students' reasons for deciding not to further their education immediately after high school graduation?

Table 4.83 provides a summary of the responses of rural students with respect to their reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation. The most frequently cited reasons were as follows: *I haven't decided what program I would like to do* (37.5%), *I have a chance to work* (34.4%), and *I do not have the grades to meet post-secondary entrance requirements* (31.3%). Over one-quarter of the students indicated the costs of post-secondary education and perceived lack of academic

ability (28.1% each) as reasons for planning not to pursue further education next year. All other reasons except "other" were listed by a varied number of students ranging from 18.8% to 3.1%. Other reasons that were cited by 21.9% of the students included: already employed, having full-time work after graduation, wanting to get more high school courses, wanting to take a year off, and wanting to work and save some money for further education.

Table 4.83
Reasons for Rural Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education Next Year (N = 32)

Reasons	Freq.	%
I haven't decided what program to do	12	37.5
I have a chance to work	11	34.4
I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements	10	31.3
It costs too much money	9	28.1
I feel I don't have the ability	9	28.1
Other	7	21.9
I may not have enough money for school	6	18.8
I feel that further education is not necessary to get a job	5	15.6
I would have to leave my home community	4	12.5
I have no desire to further my education at this time	3	9.4
I am needed at home	2	6.3
I am getting married	1	3.1

Students could choose any number of reasons. The total for each reason is displayed in the table.

When asked to identify the reason that was most important in their decision not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation. the most frequently cited was not having the grades to meet post-secondary entrance requirements (15.6%) followed by having a chance to work (9.3%). Response rates for the other reasons given were low (see Table 4.84).

Table 4.84
Most Important Reason for Rural Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education (N = 32)

Reasons	Freq.	%
I do not have the grades	5	15.6
I have a chance to work	3	9.3
It costs too much money	2	6.3
I feel I don't have the ability	2	6.3
I feel that further education is not necessary to get a job	2	6.3
I am needed at home	1	3.1
I am getting married	1	3.1
No response	16	50.0

Research Question 5

How do students plan to fund their post-secondary education for next year?

Students who planned to pursue post-secondary education after high school graduation were asked to identify on a five-point scale the amount of financial support for

their education they expected to receive from each of seven sources. Table 4.85 summarizes student responses. The main source of funding for the rural students was Canada Student Loans followed by parents. Over three-quarters of the students (77.1%) expected student loans to provide at least some funding for their post-secondary education next year while over half (56.8%) expected student loans to offset half, most, or all of the cost. 75.7% expected at least some of the necessary funds to come from their parents while only 25.7% expected their parents to provide half, most or all of the money needed.

About two-thirds (66.2%) of the students expected to use earnings from summer jobs, and a smaller number (44.7%) expected to use scholarships/bursaries to offset at least some of the cost of financing their first year of post-secondary education. Only small numbers of students, however, expected either summer jobs (5.4%) or part-time work (1.4%) during the year to be a main source of funding for their education next year (see Table 4.85).

Table 4.85
Sources of Funding for Post-Secondary Education for Next Year (Rural)
(N = 74)

Sources	None	Some	Half	Most	All	No response
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Parents	5.4	50.0	4.1	18.9	2.7	18.9
Other relatives	37.8	16.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	45.9
Part-time work during year	21.6	28.4	1.4	0.0	0.0	48.6
Summer job	2.7	60.8	5.4	0.0	0.0	31.1
Canada Student Loan	8.1	20.3	2.7	50.0	4.1	14.9
Scholarship/Bursary	20.3	35.1	4.1	4.1	1.4	35.1
Other	10.8	4.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	81.2

Research Question 6

What factors influenced students' immediate career plans?

Students were asked to indicate on a four-point scale as shown in Table 4.86 the degree to which each of the factors listed influenced their immediate career plans. The factor that was cited most frequently as having a lot of influence was mother (34.9%) followed closely by father (30.2%) and then the value placed on education in the home (26.4%). A smaller number indicated that academic ability (21.7%) influenced their plans a lot. All other factors having a lot of influence were cited by a minority of students ranging from 18.9% on value placed on work in the home to 2.8% on high school program.

When factors were analyzed for at least some degree of influence, mother (62.3%)

was again most frequently cited followed by father (57.6%) and friends (55.7). Other factors such as academic ability, the value placed on education in the home as well as the value placed on work in the home were all generally equal and cited as having at least some influence on immediate career plans.

Among those factors most frequently cited as not having any influence were: a person in the community (60.4%) followed by the desire to stay at or near home (53.8%), a person outside the community (52.8%), and family financial situation (52.8%) (see Table 4.86).

Table 4.87 displays the results of students' rankings of which factors had the most, second most, and third most, influence on their immediate career plans for next year. Friends, parents, and academic ability were perceived to be the most influential factors with 42.4%, 35%, and 32.1% respectively, with each one either the most, second most, or third most influential. Other influential factors were value placed on education in the home, mother, and father. The factors considered to be the most influential by the least number of students were high school program (1.8%) and myself (0.9%).

Table 4.86
Factors Influencing Immediate Career Plans of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	12	11.3	26	24.5	29	27.4	37	34.9	2	1.9
Father	12	11.3	29	27.4	29	27.4	32	30.2	4	3.8
Other family member	32	30.2	30	28.3	29	27.4	10	9.4	5	4.7
Teacher	39	36.8	37	34.9	19	17.9	5	4.7	6	5.7
Guidance counsellor	50	47.2	24	22.6	18	17.0	7	6.6	7	6.6
Friend(s)	14	13.2	29	27.4	45	42.5	14	13.2	4	3.8
Person in community	64	60.4	18	17.0	8	7.5	8	7.5	8	7.5
Person outside community	56	52.8	22	20.8	11	10.4	9	8.5	8	7.5
High school program	55	51.9	22	20.8	19	17.9	3	2.8	7	6.6
Academic ability	25	23.6	23	21.7	28	26.4	23	21.7	7	6.6
Economic conditions in Newfoundland and Labrador	43	40.6	24	22.6	24	22.6	6	5.7	9	8.5

(continued)

Table 4.86 continued

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Entrance requirements to post-secondary education	47	44.3	22	20.8	21	19.8	9	8.5	7	6.6
Desire to stay home or near home	57	53.8	24	22.6	14	13.2	5	4.7	6	5.7
Family financial situation	56	52.8	19	17.9	13	12.3	9	8.5	9	8.5
Personal financial situation	52	49.1	19	17.9	15	14.2	12	11.3	8	7.5
Value placed on education in home	28	26.4	23	21.7	21	19.8	28	26.4	6	5.7
Value placed on work in home	34	32.1	17	16.0	28	26.4	20	18.9	7	6.6

Table 4.87
Factors Influencing Plans of Rural Students Most
(N = 106)

Factor	Most		Second Most		Third Most	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	14	13.2	6	5.7	3	2.8
Father	5	4.7	10	9.4	6	5.7
Other family member	7	6.6	2	1.9	4	3.8
Teacher	0	0.0	3	2.8	4	3.8
Guidance counsellor	0	0.0	4	3.8	4	3.8
Friends	10	9.4	11	10.4	24	22.6
Person in community	2	1.9	0	0.0	1	0.9
Person outside community	1	0.9	4	3.8	1	0.9
High school program	1	0.9	1	0.9	0	0.0
Academic ability	7	6.6	14	13.2	13	12.3
Economic conditions in Newfoundland & Labrador	1	0.9	3	2.8	2	1.9
Entrance requirements to post secondary schools	2	1.9	3	2.8	5	4.7
Desire to stay home	4	3.8	3	2.8	1	0.9
Family financial situation	3	2.8	3	2.8	1	0.9
Personal financial situation	4	3.8	3	2.8	4	3.8
Value on education at home	11	10.4	7	6.6	8	7.5
Value on work at home	1	0.9	5	4.7	7	6.6
Parents	22	20.8	13	12.3	2	1.9
Myself	1	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
No response	10	9.4	11	10.4	16	15.1

Research Question 7

What factors did students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans?

When students were asked to indicate how much of a problem each of the five factors listed in Table 4.88 was in their career decision-making plans, 29.2% indicated the cost of pursing post-secondary education to be seriously problematic while 14.2% felt that knowing what interests them was a serious problem.

Knowing what occupations are available was most frequently cited as being at least somewhat of a problem (67.9%) followed by the cost of post-secondary education (64.1%) and knowing what interests me (58.5%). Factors that were considered to be the least problematic for most students were high school preparation (55.7%) and having to leave home (52.8%). Each factor, however, was considered somewhat of a problem for approximately 40% to 63% of the students.

Table 4.88
Potential Problems in Career Decision-Making for Rural Students
(N = 106)

Problem	Not a problem		Somewhat problem		Serious problem		No response	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
The costs of furthering my education	37	34.9	37	34.9	31	29.2	1	0.9
Knowing what interests me	43	40.6	47	44.3	15	14.2	1	0.9
Having to leave home	56	52.8	43	40.6	6	5.7	1	0.9
Knowing what careers available	33	31.1	67	63.2	5	4.7	1	0.9
High school preparation	59	55.7	42	39.6	4	3.8	1	0.9

Research Question 8

What are student perceptions regarding their parents' level of agreement with their immediate career plans?

As indicated by Table 4.89, the vast majority of students indicated their mothers (82.1%) and fathers (84.9%) at least agreed mostly with their plans for next year. Less than 15% felt either parent had some disagreement with their plans.

Table 4.89
Parental Level of Agreement With Immediate Plans of Rural Students
(N = 106)

Parent	Agrees completely		Agrees mostly		Disagrees Some		Disagrees A lot		Doesn't apply		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	65	61.3	22	20.8	13	12.3	0	0.0	5	4.7	1	0.9
Father	64	60.4	26	24.5	10	9.4	0	0.0	5	4.7	1	0.9

Research Question 9

What are students' perceptions regarding what their parents think they should do immediately after high school graduation?

When asked what each parent thought they should do immediately after high school graduation, three quarters (75.5%) of the students indicated their mothers and a slightly lower portion of their fathers (72.7%) would at least like for them to continue their education next year. In fact, 25.5% said their mothers and 20.8% of their fathers insisted that they continue on to post-secondary education (see Table 4.90).

A minority of students indicated that their mother (12.3%) and father (14.2%) wanted them to start working while less than 1% of either parent wanted them to work and continue their education at the same time.

Table 4.90
Rural Parents' Thoughts on What Their Students Should Do Next Year
(N = 106)

Response	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Start working for pay	13	12.3	15	14.2
Insist on continuing education	27	25.5	22	20.8
Definitely like me to continue education	46	43.4	49	46.2
Might like me to continue education	7	6.6	6	5.7
Work and continue education	1	0.9	1	0.9
Doesn't care what I do	4	3.8	5	4.7
Don't know what they want me to do	2	1.9	3	2.8
Doesn't apply	2	1.9	1	0.9
No response	4	3.8	4	3.8

Research Question 10

What are students' perceptions regarding their self-esteem and community attachment?

Table 4.91 summarizes student responses to seven statements of positive self-esteem. A majority of students ranging from 74.5% to 88.7% agreed with each statement. Most of the students indicated they felt positive about personal aspects as defined by the seven self-concept statements.

Table 4.91
Statements of Positive Self-Esteem (Rural)
(N = 106)

Statement: I am...	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a good learner	23	21.7	71	67.0	9	8.5	2	1.9	0	0.0	1	0.9
happy with myself, for the most part	22	20.8	69	65.1	10	9.4	3	2.8	1	0.9	1	0.9
able to accomplish whatever I put my mind to	28	26.4	63	59.4	13	12.3	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.9
capable of training for any occupation I like	48	45.3	40	37.7	15	14.2	2	1.9	0	0.0	1	0.9
as academically capable as most of my classmates	33	31.1	46	43.4	20	18.9	6	5.7	0	0.0	1	0.9
liked by my peers	16	15.1	71	67.0	14	13.2	3	2.8	1	0.9	0	0.0
likely to be successful at whatever I choose to do in life	32	30.2	55	51.9	17	16.0	1	0.9	0	0.0	1	0.9

Table 4.92 summarizes student responses to four statements related to community attachment. A majority of students ranging from 51.9% to 62.3% disagreed with three of the four statements dealing with being attached to one's home community. Half the students, however, indicated they like living in their community while an additional 22.6% expressed uncertainly about it. Overall, some level of community attachment as defined by the statements was expressed by a minority of rural students.

Table 4.92
Statements of Community Attachment (Rural Sample)
(N = 106)

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Like living in community	15	14.2	38	35.8	24	22.6	18	17.0	10	9.4	1	0.9
Feel torn having to leave to find work	4	3.8	16	15.1	22	20.8	37	34.9	26	24.5	1	0.9
Feel torn having to leave to further education	3	2.8	16	15.1	20	18.9	39	36.8	27	25.5	1	0.9
Prefer to stay in/near home community to work	9	8.5	16	15.1	25	23.6	25	23.6	30	28.3	1	0.9

Research Question 11

Are there gender differences on students' career aspirations?

Since 88% of the rural students gave at least one occupational choice, analysis of gender differences was based on initial choices. Differences were considered statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. "No responses" were excluded along with occupational choices made by a total of fewer than five respondents in order to strengthen the analysis.

There were significant gender differences in several of the occupations categories. As Table 4.93 displays, a significantly higher proportion of males than females indicated they desired to have occupations in natural science, engineering and mathematics (27.3% versus 6.1%), product fabricating (13.6% versus 0.0%), and forestry and logging (9.1% versus 0.0%). These categories have traditionally been areas with male dominated occupations. More of the females, however, desired occupations in the traditionally female dominated areas of medicine and health (28.6% versus 9.1%) and social sciences (16.3% versus 0.0%). As well, while more females (6.1% versus 0.0%) aspired to occupations in teaching and related occupations, managerial and administration occupations, and service occupations (18.4% versus 13.6%), more males held occupational aspirations in the mining, machining, and construction trade areas (4.5% versus 0.0%).

A chi-square analysis of the GED and SVP levels of students' occupational choices indicated no significant gender differences at the 0.05 level. As can be seen in Tables 4.94 and 4.95, however, higher percentages of females aspired to occupations with high GED and SVP levels.

Table 4.93
Future Occupational Choices of Rural Students by Gender
(N = 93)

Occupational Group	Males (N = 44)		Females (N = 49)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	0	0.0	3	6.1
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	12	27.3	3	6.1
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	0	0.0	8	16.3
Occupations in religion	1	2.3	1	2.0
Teaching and related occupations	0	0.0	3	6.1
Occupations in medicine and health	4	9.1	14	28.6
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	2.3	3	6.1
Occupations in sport and recreation	1	2.3	0	0.0
Clerical and related occupations	0	0.0	1	2.0
Sales occupations	0	0.0	1	2.0
Service occupations	6	13.6	9	18.4
Farming, horticultural and animal-husbandry occupations	0	0.0	1	2.0
Forestry and logging occupations	4	9.1	0	0.0
Mining and quarrying including oil and gas field occupations	2	4.5	0	0.0

(continued)

Table 4.93 continued

Occupational Group	Males (N = 44)		Females (N = 49)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Processing occupations	0	0.0	1	2.0
Machining and related occupations	2	4.5	0	0.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	6	13.6	0	0.0
Construction trades occupations	2	4.5	0	0.0
Transport equipment operating occupations	3	6.8	1	2.0

$x^2 = 48.43$ $p = 0.00$

Table 4.94
GED Level of Rural Students' Occupational Choices by Gender
(N = 93)

GED	Males (N = 44)		Females (N = 49)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
2	4	9.1	1	2.0
3	10	22.7	10	20.4
4	12	27.3	9	18.4
5	13	29.5	20	40.8
6	5	11.4	9	18.4

$x^2 = 4.60$ $p = 0.331$

Table 4.95
SVP Level of Rural Student Occupational Choices by Gender
(N = 93)

SVP	Males (N = 44)		Females (N = 49)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
3	3	6.8	2	4.1
4	3	6.8	4	8.2
5	5	11.4	1	2.0
6	10	22.7	9	18.4
7	14	31.8	18	36.7
8	8	18.2	14	28.6
9	1	2.3	1	2.0

$x^2 = 4.944$ $p = 0.551$

Research Question 12

Are there gender differences on students' immediate career plans?

A gender comparison of the immediate career plans of rural students revealed no statistically significant differences. However, more females (80.8% versus 59.3%) planned to pursue post-secondary education next year while all other options included a higher proportion of males (see Table 4.96).

While differences by gender were not significant on the type and location of planned post-secondary institution, a greater percentage of females (64.3 % compared to 43.8%) planned to attend university within or outside the province as well as colleges (14.3% compared to 6.3%) outside the province (see Table 4.97). More of the males, however,

planned to attend a college in Newfoundland (43.8% compared to 19.0%) or indicated they did not know what institution they planned to attend.

Table 4.96
Immediate Plans of Rural Students by Gender
(N = 106)

Plans	Male (N = 54)		Female (N = 52)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Furthering education	32	59.3	42	80.8
Working	11	20.4	7	13.5
Taking a year off	4	7.4	2	3.8
Returning to high school	4	7.4	0	0.0
No plans	3	5.6	1	1.9

$x^2 = 7.87$ $p = 0.096$

Table 4.97
Type and Location of Institution by Gender (Rural)
(N = 74)

Institution	Males (N = 61)		Females (N = 68)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Memorial University of Newfoundland	11	34.4	21	50.0
University outside province	3	9.4	6	14.3
Public or private college in province	14	43.8	8	19.0
Public or private college outside province	2	6.3	6	14.3
Don't know	2	6.3	1	2.4

$x^2 = 7.63$ $p = 0.27$

Research Question 13

Are there gender differences on students' future career expectations?

Three questions were individually examined for gender differences. They related to expected employment status, occupation, and living location. As can be seen in Table 4.98, there were significant differences with respect to expected employment status in five to ten years. Although the percentages of males and females who expected full-time employment (83.3% compared to 80.3% respectively) were about the same, more of the females (17.6%) than males (0.0%) indicated they expected to be homemakers as well. A significantly higher proportion of females (13.7%) than males (3.7%) also expected to be furthering their education in five to ten years while more of the males thought they would be employed at least part-time or seasonally (see Table 4.98).

Significant gender differences existed on occupational expectations of those rural students who expected to have either full-time or part-time employment in five to ten years. More of the females (97.9%) than males (77.1%) expected their future occupation to be the same as the one they indicated aspiring towards.

Table 4.98
Employment Status Expectations of Rural Students in 5 to 10 Years by Gender (N = 105)

Employment status	Males (N = 54)		Females (N = 51)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Full-time employment	45	83.3	32	62.7
Part-time/seasonal and collecting E.I.	4	7.4	0	0.0
Full-time and homemaker	0	0.0	9	17.6
Part-time/seasonal and homemaker	3	5.6	3	5.9
Furthering education	2	3.7	7	13.7
Employed and furthering education	0	0.0	0	0.0
Unemployed but homemaker	0	0.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 17.90$ $p = 0.00$

A significantly higher proportion of the males (22.9%) than females (2.1%), however, expected their future occupation would differ from the one they would like to have (see Table 4.99).

Table 4.99
Future Occupation Expectations of Rural Students by Gender (N = 96)

Future expectations	Males (N = 48)		Females (N = 48)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Same	37	77.1	47	97.9
Different	11	22.9	1	2.1

$x^2 = 9.52$ $p = 0.00$

As shown in Table 4.100, no significant gender differences existed on student expectations of their future residence location. Slightly more males (9.3%) than females (3.8%), however, identified their hometown as their expected future living location while more of the females (76.9%) than males (70.4%) expected to be living outside the province in five to ten years.

Table 4.100
Expected Future Residence Location by Gender (Rural)
(N = 106)

Location	Males (N = 54)		Females (N = 52)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Hometown	5	9.3	2	3.8
Within province, but not hometown	10	18.5	10	19.2
Outside province	38	70.4	40	76.9
Don't know	1	1.9	0	0.0

$x^2 = 2.30$ $p = 0.51$

Research Question 14

Are there gender differences on students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation?

A chi-square analysis of students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation revealed no statistically significant gender differences at the 0.05 level (see Table 4.101). There were, however, some observable differences that were noted. Except for four reasons, namely: not having enough

money, not having the necessary grades to meet entrance requirements, getting married, and other, all others were identified by a higher percentage a males than females. More of the females cited the four reasons mentioned above.

Table 4.101
Reasons for Not Continuing Education by Gender (Rural)
(N = 32)

Reason	Males (N = 22)		Females (N = 10)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
Costs too much money	7	31.8	2	20.0	0.475	0.49
May not have enough money for school	3	13.6	2	20.0	0.211	0.65
Would have to leave home community	4	18.2	0	0.0	2.08	0.15
I feel I don't have the ability to do well	8	36.4	1	10.0	2.36	0.124
Haven't decided on program	10	45.5	2	20.0	1.90	0.17
Don't have grades to meet entrance requirements	5	22.7	4	40.0	1.02	0.31
Needed at home	2	9.1	0	0.0	0.97	0.33
No desire to further education	3	13.6	0	0.0	1.51	0.22

(continued)

Table 4.101 continued

Reason	Males (N = 22)		Females (N = 10)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
Furthering education/ training not necessary to get a job	4	18.2	1	10.0	0.35	0.56
Chance to go to work	8	36.4	3	30.3	0.12	0.73
Getting married	0	0.0	1	10.0	2.27	0.13
Other	4	18.2	3	30.0	0.56	0.45

Students could give more than one reason. The totals for each reason are displayed in the table.

As Table 4.102 shows, no statistically significant differences could be identified with respect to those reasons identified as being most important in deciding to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school. This was due to the low number of students who responded to this item given the analysis excluded "no response" and cells with a total less than five.

Table 4.102
Most Important Reason for Deciding Not to Pursue Post-Secondary Education by Gender (Rural)
(N = 16)

Reason	Males (N = 11)		Females (N = 5)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Costs too much money	2	18.2	0	0.0
Feel I don't have the ability	2	18.2	0	0.0
Can not meet entrance requirements	2	18.2	3	60.0

(continued)

Table 4.102 continued

Reason	Males (N = 11)		Females (N = 5)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Needed at home	1	9.1	0	0.0
Feels further education not necessary to get a job	2	18.2	0	0.0
Have a chance to work	2	18.2	1	20.0
Getting married	0	0.0	1	20.0

$x^2 = 7.31$ $p = 0.29$

Research Question 15

Are there gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans?

Chi-square analyses showed significant gender differences on several factors perceived by rural students to have influenced their immediate career plans for next year. A significantly higher percentage of females than males ((50% versus 21.2%) indicated their mothers , academic ability (40.4% versus 4.3%), the value placed on education at home (38.5% versus 16.7%), and a person outside the community (13.7% versus 4.3%) influenced their plans a lot (see Table 4.103). More of the females, as well, indicated that their mothers (76.6% verses 49.7%), the value placed on education in the home (61.6% versus 35.5%), and a person outside the community (29.4% versus 10.7%) were factors that had at least some influence on their plans. A significantly higher proportion of males (38.3% versus 19.2%), however, perceived that their academic ability had influenced their immediate plans to some degree.

Table 4.103
Factors That Influenced Immediate Career Plans by Gender (Rural)

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Mother	11.5	38.5	28.5	21.2	11.5	11.5	26.9	50.0	13.65	0.003*
Father	11.8	33.3	31.4	23.5	11.8	23.5	25.5	39.2	3.17	0.37
Other family member	26.5	36.7	24.5	12.2	36.5	23.1	32.7	7.7	3.50	0.32
Teacher	43.8	41.7	10.4	4.2	34.6	32.7	26.9	5.8	4.79	0.19
Guidance counsellor	61.7	17.0	14.9	6.4	40.4	30.8	21.2	7.7	4.74	0.19
Friend(s)	18.0	26.0	46.0	10.0	9.6	30.8	42.3	17.3	2.58	0.46
Person in community	53.2	27.7	8.5	10.6	76.5	9.8	7.8	5.9	6.97	0.07
Person outside community	57.4	31.9	6.4	4.3	56.9	13.7	15.7	13.7	7.88	0.04*
High school program	61.7	14.9	21.3	2.1	50.0	28.8	17.3	3.8	3.21	0.36
Academic ability	29.8	27.7	38.3	4.3	21.2	19.2	19.2	40.4	18.53	0.00*
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	50.0	26.1	19.6	4.3	39.2	23.5	29.4	7.8	2.12	0.55

(continued)

Table 4.103 continued

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	50.0	25.0	20.8	4.2	45.1	19.6	21.6	13.7	2.94	0.40
Desire to stay home or near home	45.8	29.2	16.7	8.3	67.3	19.2	11.5	1.9	5.57	0.14
Financial situation of family	58.7	19.6	17.4	4.3	56.9	19.6	9.8	13.7	3.35	0.34
Personal financial situation	41.3	21.7	21.7	15.2	63.5	17.3	9.6	9.6	5.48	0.14
Value placed on education in home	33.3	31.3	18.8	16.7	23.1	15.4	23.1	38.5	8.13	0.04*
Value placed on work in home	38.3	14.9	34.0	12.8	30.8	19.2	23.1	26.9	4.18	0.24

*statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

As can be seen in Table 4.104, statistically significant gender differences were evident with respect to three factors that had at least a little influence on students' immediate career plans. A higher percentage of female than males (59.6% versus 38.3%, $x^2 = 4.49$, $p = 0.03$) indicated that their guidance counsellor influenced their plans at least a little. Significantly more males than females, however, perceived that a person in the community (46.8% versus 23.5%, $x^2 = 5.85$, $p = 0.02$), and their personal financial situation (58.7% versus 36.5%, $x^2 = 4.81$, $p = 0.03$) were at least a little influential in their career plans for next year.

Although the differences were not statistically significant, more of the males (54.2% versus 32.7%) indicated that their desire to stay at or near home influenced their plans at least a little. However, higher percentages of females perceived factors such as a teacher, friends, their high school program, academic ability, the economic condition in Newfoundland and Labrador, and the value placed on education in the home had at least a little influence on next year's career plans (see Table 4.104).

As Table 4.105 shows, there were no statistically significant gender differences on factors perceived to have influenced students' immediate career plans the most. There were some observable differences, however, that were noted. Higher proportions of females indicated that their mothers (20% versus 8.7%), the value placed on education in the home (28% versus 17.4%), and their parents (28% versus 17.4) influenced their plans the most. The father was cited more frequently by males (10.9% versus 0%) as having had the most influence on next year's plans.

Table 4.104
Factors Having at Least a Little Influence on Immediate Plans by Gender (Rural)

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Mother	46	88.5	46	88.5	0.00	1.00
Father	45	88.2	45	88.2	0.00	1.00
Other family member	36	73.5	33	63.5	1.17	0.28
Teacher	27	56.3	34	65.4	0.88	0.35
Guidance Counsellor	18	38.3	31	59.6	4.49	0.034*
Friend(s)	41	82.0	47	90.4	1.51	0.22
Person in community	22	46.8	12	23.5	5.85	0.02*
Person outside community	20	42.6	22	43.1	0.003	0.95
High school program	18	38.3	26	50.0	1.37	0.24
Academic ability	33	70.2	41	78.8	0.98	0.32
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	23	50.0	31	60.8	1.14	0.29

(continued)

Table 4.104 continued

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	24	50.0	28	54.9	0.24	0.63
Desire to stay home or near home	26	54.2	17	32.7	4.70	0.03
Financial situation of family	19	41.3	22	43.1	0.03	0.86
Personal financial situation	27	58.7	19	36.5	4.81	0.03*
Value placed on education in home	32	66.7	40	76.9	1.30	0.25
Value placed on work in home	29	61.7	36	69.2	0.62	0.43

*statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

Table 4.105
Factors Considered to Have Influenced Plans the Most by Gender (Rural)
(N = 96)

Factor	Male (N = 46)		Female (N=50)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	4	8.7	10	20.0
Father	5	10.9	0	0.0
Other family member	5	10.9	2	4.0
Teacher	0	0.0	0	0.0
Guidance Counsellor	0	0.0	0	0.0
Friend(s)	6	13.0	4	8.0
Person in community	1	2.2	1	2.0
Person outside community	0	0.0	1	2.0
High school program	0	0.0	1	2.0
Academic ability	2	4.3	5	10.0
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	1	2.2	0	0.0
Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	1	2.2	1	2.0
Desire to stay home or near home	3	6.5	1	2.0
Financial situation of family	1	2.2	2	4.0
Personal financial situation	4	8.7	0	0.0
Value placed on education in home	4	8.7	7	14.0
Value placed on work in home	0	0.0	1	2.0
Parents	8	17.4	14	28.0
Self	1	2.2	0	0.0

$x^2 = 23.20$ $p = 0.11$

Research Question 16

Are there gender differences on factors perceived by students to be problematic in deciding career plans?

A statistically significant gender difference existed in one factor perceived as a problem in the career decision-making plans of rural Level III students. As Table 4.106 indicated, a higher percentage of males than females (52.8% versus 26.9%, $x^2 = 7.52$, $p = 0.02$) indicated that their high school preparation was somewhat of a problem in their career decision-making plans. More of the females (69.2% versus 43.4%), however, perceived this factor not to be problematic for them at all.

While the differences were not significant, some were evident on other areas of potential problems. More of the males (69.8% versus 48%) thought that knowing their interests was at least somewhat of a problem for their career decisions. More females, however, (40.4% versus 30.2%) indicated that costs of furthering their education was not problematic in making career plans (see Table 4.106).

Table 4.106
Potential Problems in Deciding Career Plans by Gender (Rural)
(N = 105)

Potential problem	Male (N = 53)			Female (N = 52)			x^2	p
	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %		
High school preparation	43.4	52.8	3.8	69.2	26.9	3.8	7.52	0.02*
Having to leave home	56.6	39.6	3.8	50.0	42.3	7.7	0.97	0.62
Knowing what interests me	30.2	52.8	17.0	51.9	36.5	11.5	5.13	0.08
Knowing what careers are available	28.3	66.0	5.7	34.6	61.5	3.8	0.60	0.74
Costs of furthering education	30.2	35.8	34.0	40.4	34.6	25.0	1.50	0.47

THE URBAN SAMPLE

Demographic Profile

As with the combined and rural samples, a basic demographic profile of the urban students surveyed in this study was compiled from information gathered on the first eight questions in the survey.

Gender and Area

As can be seen Table 4.107, the gender distribution of the urban sample was about the same with 52.2% males and 47.8% females. Out of the three samples (rural, urban, combined), the urban was the most unevenly distributed.

Table 4.107
Combined Gender and Area Distribution of Sample

Gender	Rural (N = 106)		Urban (N = 67)		Total (N = 173)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Male	54	50.9	35	52.2	89	51.4
		(60.7)		(39.3)		(100)
Female	52	49.1	32	47.8	84	48.6
		(61.9)		(38.1)		(100)
Total	106	100	67	100	173	100
		(61.3)		(38.7)		(100)

Age

Students' ages ranged from 16 years to 20 years old and older. The majority of the urban students (86.6%) were in the 17 - 18 age bracket with an equal of the students (43.3% each) of each age. An additional 11.9% were 19 and older. While the differences were not statistically significant, more of the males were 17 years old while the 18 and 19 age brackets were dominated by greater percentages of females (see Table 4.108).

Table 4.108
Age Distribution (Urban)
(N = 67)

Age	Males (N = 35)		Females (N = 32)		Total (N = 67)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
16	1	2.9	0	0.0	1	1.5
17	17	48.6	12	37.5	29	43.3
18	14	40.0	15	46.9	29	43.3
19	2	5.7	5	15.6	7	10.4
20+	1	2.9	0	0.0	1	1.5

$x^2 = 4.06$ $p = 0.40$

Grades

As can be seen in Table 4.111, the majority of students for each year (59.7% and 52.2%) reported their overall school averages to be in the average range (65 - 70). More students reported averages of 80 and above for this year (40.3%) than last year (31.3%). One student (1.5%) indicated a failing average for last year.

When grades for both years were compared by gender, differences were not statistically significant. As can be seen in Tables 4.109 and 4.110, however, more males (34.3% versus 28.1%) indicated an overall average of 80 + for last year while the same average for this year was reported by more females (46.9% versus 34.3%). As well, while slightly more of the females (71.9% versus 65.8%) reported overall averages below 80 for last year, a fairly higher percentage of males (65.7% versus 53.2%) reported below 80 averages for this year.

Table 4.109
Average Last Year (Urban)
(N = 67)

Average	Male (N = 35)		Female (N =32)		Total (N = 67)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	12	34.3	9	28.1	21	31.3
65-79	21	60.0	19	59.4	40	59.7
50-64	1	2.9	4	12.5	5	7.5
49 or below	1	2.9	0	0.0	1	1.5

$x^2 = 3.20$ $p = 0.36$

Table 4.110
Average This Year (Urban)
(N = 67)

Average	Male (N = 35)		Female (N =32)		Total (N = 67)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	12	34.3	15	46.9	27	40.3
65-79	20	57.1	15	46.9	35	52.2
50-64	3	8.6	2	6.3	5	7.5
49 or below	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 1.12$ $p = 0.57$

Table 4.111
Comparison of Average Both Years (Urban)
(N = 67)

Average	Last year		This year	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
80+	21	31.3	27	40.3
65-79	40	59.7	35	52.2
50-64	5	7.5	5	7.5
49 or below	1	1.5	0	0.0

Parent Education Level

The education level of parents in the urban sample is summarized in Table 4.112. The majority of students indicated that their mothers (55.2%) and fathers (59.7%) were university graduated while an additionally equal number (11.9%) reported each parent

graduated from college. Overall, a substantial and equal majority of the urban students (80.6%) identified at least some post-secondary education as the level of education completed by their mother and father. While slightly more fathers (59.7%) than mothers (55.2%) were university graduates, slightly more of the mothers had high school graduation and some university or college education as their highest levels of completed education (see Table 112). An equally small number of students (1.5%) indicated some schooling as the highest level of education completed by either parent.

Table 4.112
Education Level of Parents (Urban)
(N = 67)

Education Level	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Some schooling	1	1.5	1	1.5
Graduated from high school	9	13.4	7	10.4
Some university education	3	4.5	2	3.0
Some college education	6	9.0	4	6.0
University graduate	37	55.2	40	59.7
College graduate	8	11.9	8	11.9
Don't know	3	4.5	5	7.5

Parent Employment and Occupational Status

As can be seen in Table 4.113, the majority of urban students indicated that their father (80.6%) and mother (62.7%) had full-time employment. While a higher percentage

of fathers had full-time employment, more mothers (23.9% versus 9.0%) were reported as being employed part-time. The number of unemployed mothers and fathers was about 10%.

Table 4.113
Employment Status of Urban Parents
(N = 67)

Employment status	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Employed full-time	54	80.6	42	62.7
Employed part-time	6	9.0	16	23.9
Unemployed	5	7.5	7	10.4
Retired	1	1.5	2	3.0
No response	1	1.5	0	0.0

Urban parent occupations were grouped according to the major categories used in the Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO, 1989). Fourteen different occupational groups emerged. As displayed in Table 4.114, the most frequently cited occupations for fathers were in managerial, administrative and related occupations (22.4%), followed by teaching (17.9%), and then natural science, engineering and mathematics (13.4%). The most frequently cited occupations for mothers were in medicine and health (20.9%) followed by an equal number in teaching and clerical (17.9% each).

While the number of urban mothers and fathers in the teaching and related

occupations category was the same (17.9%), more of the fathers had occupations in the managerial and administrative category, natural sciences, engineering and mathematics, and service industry while more of the mothers' occupations were in medicine/health, clerical, social sciences and sales (see Table 4.114).

Table 4.114
Parent Occupation Group of Urban Sample
(N = 67)

Occupational Groups	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	15	22.4	7	10.4
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	9	13.4	3	4.5
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	2	3.0	5	7.5
Occupations in religion	3	4.5	0	0.0
Teaching and related occupations	12	17.9	12	17.9
Occupations in medicine and health	3	4.5	14	20.9
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	1.5	0	0.0
Clerical and related occupations	0	0.0	12	17.9
Sales occupations	2	3.0	5	7.5
Service occupations	6	9.0	1	1.5
Machining and related occupations	1	1.5	0	0.0

(continued)

Table 4.114 continued

Occupational Groups	Father		Mother	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Construction trades occupations	2	3.0	0	0.0
Occupations not elsewhere classified	3	4.5	1	1.5
Don't know	0	0.0	1	1.5
No response	6	9.0	6	9.0

As can be seen in Table 4.115, the GED levels for the majority of both parents' occupations were generally high. 85.2% of the fathers' and 83.7% of the mothers' occupations had a GED of four or higher. The GED level for 3.2% of the mothers' and 4.9% of the fathers' occupations could not be determined because they were not known or in an uncodeable personal business area.

Table 4.116 reveals that the SVP time for both parents occupations were generally high as well. 86.8% of the fathers' and 83.7% of the mothers' occupations had a SVP level of six or greater. SVP time could not be determined for 4.9% of the fathers' and 3.3% of the mothers' occupations. Out of the number of parents' occupations with low GED and SVP levels, slightly more of these were held by the mothers (see Tables 4.115 and 4.116).

Table 4.115
GED Level of Parents' Occupations (Urban)

GED level	Father (N = 61)		Mother (N = 61)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	0	0.0	1	1.6
2	3	4.9	3	4.9
3	3	4.9	5	8.2
4	10	16.4	22	36.1
5	26	42.6	22	36.1
6	16	26.2	7	11.5
8	3	4.9	1	1.6

GED level is based on both formal and informal aspects of education which contribute to a worker's reasoning development, ability to follow instructions, and the acquisition of mathematical and language skills.

Table 4.116
SVP Level of Parents' Occupations (Urban)

SVP level	Father (N = 61)		Mother (N = 61)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	3	4.9	2	3.3
2	0	0.0	3	4.9
3	3	4.9	3	4.9
4	0	0.0	1	1.6
5	2	3.3	1	1.6
6	6	9.8	12	19.7
7	15	24.6	27	44.3
8	31	50.8	10	16.4
9	1	1.6	2	3.3

SVP level is based on the time required to learn the skills and techniques needed for an occupation.

Research Question 1

What are the students' career aspirations?

Some students listed up to two choices for survey question number 11. The majority of students listed only one (64.2%) while 10.4% listed two and the remaining 25.4% did not respond.

Table 4.117
Number of Occupational Choices by Urban Students
(N = 67)

Number of choices	Frequency	%
One	43	64.2
Two	7	10.4
No response	17	25.4

As shown in Table 4.118, twelve different occupational groups emerged when students' choices were classified according to the major group codes used in the Canadian Classification and Dictionary of Occupations (CCDO, 1989). Close to two-thirds (62.7%) of students' choices were distributed among natural sciences, engineering and mathematics (16.4%), medicine and health (14.9%), social sciences (13.4%), teaching (9%), and artistic, literary, and performing arts (9%). The number of choices in the other categories ranged from 6% in transport equipment operating occupations to 1.5% in occupational categories such as religion, construction trades, and sports and recreation. No urban students aspired to occupations in any of the primary industries of mining, forestry/logging or fishing.

Table 4.118
Occupational Choices of Urban Students
(N = 67)

Occupational group	Frequency	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	3	4.5
Occupations in natural science, engineering and mathematics	11	16.4
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	9	13.4
Occupations in religion	1	1.5
Teaching and related occupations	6	9.0
Occupations in medicine and health	10	14.9
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	6	9.0
Occupations in sport and recreations	1	1.5
Service occupations	2	3.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	2	3.0
Construction trades occupations	1	1.5
Transport equipment operating occupations	4	6.0
Don't know	1	1.5
No response	17	25.4

The GED and SVP levels of the occupations cited by urban students were high. As Table 4.119 shows, occupations with a GED level of five were cited most frequently (62%) followed by those with a GED of six (32%). The most frequently cited SVP level was eight (52%) followed by seven (36%) and six (14%) (see Table 4.120).

Table 4.119
GED Levels of Occupational Choices of Urban Students
(N = 50)

GED	Frequency	%
0	1	2.0
2	2	2.0
3	5	10.0
4	3	6.0
5	31	62.0
6	16	32.0

Note: Totals include up to two choices.

Table 4.120
SVP Levels of Occupational Choices of Urban Students
(N = 50)

SVP	Frequency	%
0	1	2.0
2	1	2.0
3	2	4.0
4	2	4.0
6	7	14.0
7	18	36.0
8	26	52.0

Note: Totals include up to two choices.

When asked how to indicate about how long they have been interested in their occupational choice, half said more than two years while an additional 38% thought they were interested in it from one to two years (see Table 4.121).

Table 4.121
Length of Interest in Occupational Choice (Urban)
(N = 93)

Length of Interest	Total	
	Freq.	%
Less than 1 year	6	12
1 - 2 years	19	38
More than 2 years	25	50

As Table 4.122 displays, over two-thirds of the urban students (70%) indicated they became interested in their desired occupation through factors other than those listed. Some of these other factors included the media, personal interest, career day in Grade 10, volunteer work, co-op placement, work experience, another family member, and long time personal dream. While only 2% of students felt a teacher was the means of them becoming interested in the specified occupation, no student indicated they became interested through just a guidance counsellor.

Table 4.122
How Urban Students Became Interested in Chosen Occupation
(N = 50)

How	Frequency	%
Other	35	70.0
Parents	8	16.0
Friends	4	8.0
Combination	2	4.0
Teacher	1	2.0
Guidance Counsellor	0	0.0

When asked if they knew someone in the occupation they desired in five to ten years, 58% indicated they did (see Table 4.123). Of those who said yes, almost two-thirds (65.5%) reported they had discussed the occupation with that person (see Table 4.123).

Table 4.123
Student Knew Someone in Desired Occupation (Urban)
(N = 50)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	29	58
No	21	42

Table 4.124
Discussed Occupation with Someone in Desired Occupation (Urban)
(N = 29)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	19	65.5
No	10	34.5

Research Question 2

What are the students' immediate career plans?

Table 4.125 shows that most urban students (82.1%) planned to further their education in the year immediately following high school graduation while 11.9% planned to work. The remaining 6% of the students indicated they would return to high school, take the year off, or just did not have a plan at all.

Table 4.125
Immediate Career Plans of Urban Students
(N = 67)

Immediate plan	Freq.	%
Further education or training	55	82.1
Work	8	11.9
Take year off	2	3.0
Return to high school	1	1.5
No plans	1	1.5

Table 4.126 summarizes the type and location of post-secondary institutions selected for attendance by those who planned to further their education next year. Memorial University of Newfoundland was chosen by the majority of students (70.9%) as the institution they planned to attend to pursue their post-secondary education next year. The next most frequent selection was a university outside the province (18.2%). Slightly more than one-quarter of the urban students (25.5%) planned to pursue their post-secondary education outside the province.

Table 4.126
Institution Planned to Attend by Urban Students
(N = 55)

Institution	Frequency	%
Memorial University	39	70.9
University outside Newfoundland & Labrador	10	18.2
College in Newfoundland & Labrador	1	1.8
College outside Newfoundland & Labrador	4	7.3
Don't know	1	1.8

Of the urban students who planned not to pursue post-secondary education in the year following high school graduations, 83.3% planned to be employed in some occupation. As Table 4.127 shows, one-quarter of those students felt they would have employment in the service industry. These occupations were in fast food restaurants and gas bars which would be accessible to urban students. One-third of the students indicated they may have jobs in either sales, sports and recreations, or artistic/literary. The remaining 25% did not know what type of occupation they may have. The occupations cited were generally low paying with low GED and SVP levels.

Table 4.127
Jobs Expected Next Year by Urban Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education (N = 12)

Occupational Group	Frequency	%
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	8.3
Occupations in sport and recreation	1	8.3
Sales occupations	2	16.7
Service occupations	3	25.0
Don't know	3	25.0
No response	2	16.7

When asked to indicate where they expected to be employed in those occupations, 80% specified their hometown area. The remaining 20% was evenly divided between elsewhere in the province and outside the province (see Table 4.128).

Table 4.128
Area Expected to Work by Urban Students Not Furthering Education (N = 10)

Location	Frequency	%
Hometown area	8	80.0
Elsewhere in Newfoundland & Labrador	1	10.0
Outside of the province	1	10.0

Table 4.129 shows that three-quarters of those students who planned not to pursue any post-secondary education in the year following graduation indicated that they expected

to further their education at a later time while an additional 8.3% were not sure and an additional 8.3% gave no response.

Table 4.129
Intentions of Urban Students to Further Education Later
(N = 12)

Response	Frequency	%
Yes	9	75.0
No	1	8.3
Not sure	1	8.3
No response	1	8.3

Research Question 3

What are the students' future career expectations?

Responses from items related to expected employment status, occupation, and general area of residence in five to ten years were used to answer this question. As to the expected employment status in five to ten years, almost two-thirds (65.7%) of the urban students expected to be employed full-time. This number included 7.5% who also expected to be homemakers (see Table 4.130). An additional 4.5% thought they would be employed either part-time or seasonally with 1.5% also homemakers. Almost 20% expected to be furthering their education while another 8.9% thought they would be employed as well as pursuing further education. A small number (1.5%) felt they would be unemployed.

Table 4.130
Expected Employment Status of Urban Students in 5 -10 Years
(N = 67)

Employment Status	Freq.	%
Employed full-time	39	58.2
Furthering education	13	19.4
Employed and furthering education	6	8.9
Employed full-time and homemaker	5	7.5
Employed part-time/seasonally & collecting E.I.	2	3.0
Employed part-time/seasonally & homemaker	1	1.5
Unemployed but homemaker	1	1.5

Out of those students who expected to be employed either full-time or part-time in five to ten years, the most (78%) believed they would be employed in their desired occupation while 22% felt the occupation would be different (see Table 4.131).

Table 4.131
Expected Occupation of Urban Students in 5-10 Years
(N = 50)

Occupation Expectation	Freq.	%
Same as previously identified	39	78.0
Different	11	22.0

As can be seen in Table 4.132, of those urban students who expected to be employed in occupations different from the one they desired in five to ten years, over half (54.6%) identified occupations that spread across five of the listed occupational categories, with

service occupations cited most frequently (18.2%). Over one-quarter (27.2%) indicated they did not know what the occupation might be. Tables 4.133 and 4.134 also show that an equal number of those occupations had high GED (≥4) and SVP (≥6) levels and represented two-thirds of the occupations that had identifiable GED and SVP levels.

Table 4.132
Different Occupations Expected by Urban Students in 5 - 10 Years
(N = 11)

Occupational Group	Freq.	%
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	1	9.1
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	1	9.1
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	1	9.1
Sales occupations	1	9.1
Service occupations	2	18.2
Don't know	3	27.2
No response	2	18.2

Table 4.133
GED Level of Different Occupations Expected by Urban Students
(N = 9)

GED	Freq.	%
0	3	33.3
2	1	11.1
3	1	11.1
4	1	11.1
5	2	22.2
6	1	11.1

Table 4.134
SVP Level of Different Occupations Expected by Urban Students
(N = 9)

SVP	Freq.	%
0	3	33.3
2	1	11.1
4	1	11.1
6	1	11.1
7	1	11.1
8	2	22.2

Table 4.135 summarizes where urban students expected to be living in five to ten years. Most (61.2%) expected to be residing outside the province. While 35.8% expected their area of residence to be within the province, the majority of these believed it would be in their hometown area.

Table 4.135
Expected Area of Residence for Urban Students in 5-10 Years
(N = 67)

Expected Residence	Freq.	%
Outside Newfoundland and Labrador	41	61.2
Hometown area in Newfoundland and Labrador	21	31.3
Other than hometown area in Newfoundland & Labrador	3	4.5
Don't know	1	1.5
No response	1	1.5

Research Question 4

What are the students' reasons for deciding not to further their education immediately after high school graduation?

As can be seen in Table 4.136 the reason cited by most students (63.6%) was not having decided what program they would like to do. "I have an opportunity to work" was the next most frequently cited reason (27.3%). Three other reasons equally cited less frequently (18.2% each) were the high cost of post-secondary education, not having the grades to meet entrance requirements, and lack of desire to pursue post-secondary education at this time. With the exception of two reasons that were not acknowledged by any of the students, all other reasons were equally cited with a low frequency. The reason given in the "other" category indicated that the student was on a two year waiting list.

Table 4.136
Reasons for Urban Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education Next Year (N = 11)

Reasons	Freq.	%
It costs too much money	2	18.2
I may not have enough money for school	1	9.1
I would have to leave my home community	1	9.1
I feel I don't have the ability to do well in post-secondary education	1	9.1
I haven't decided what program I'd like to do	7	63.6
I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements	2	18.2
I am needed at home	0	0.0
I have no desire to further my education at this time	2	18.2
I feel that further education is not necessary to get a job	1	9.1
I have a chance to work	3	27.3
I am getting married	0	0.0
Other	1	9.1

Students could choose any number of reasons. The total for each reason is displayed in the table.

Students were asked to identify the reason they considered to be the most important in their decision not to pursue post-secondary education in the year following high school graduation. Out of the 41.6% who responded to this item, most indicated that not having decided what program they would like to do was the most important reason (see Table 4.137). One student (8.3%) indicated having no desire to pursue post-secondary education at this time as the most important reason for the decision.

Table 4.137
Most Important Reason for Urban Students Not Pursuing Post-Secondary Education (N = 12)

Reasons	Freq.	%
I haven't decided what program	4	33.3
I have no desire to further my education at this time	1	8.3
No response	7	58.4

Research Question 5

How do the students plan to fund their post-secondary education for next year?

Table 4.138 summarizes student responses related to the degree to which each of the seven sources will fund the cost of their first year of post-secondary education. The main source of funding for the majority of urban students was parents, followed by Canada Student Loans and summer jobs.

In total, 83.6% of the 55 students expected their parents to provide at least some financial support for their post-secondary education next year. 47.3% expected their parents to provide most or all of the money needed.

Over half the students (58.2%) expected their summer job earnings and 40.1% expected to use money from student loans to cover at least some of their post-secondary education costs next year. However, 21.9% of the students expected Canada Student Loans to provide at least half of the money needed whereas only 9.1% expected earnings from summer jobs to cover the same amount of their education costs (see Table 4.138).

Table 4.138
Sources of Funding for Post-Secondary Education for Next Year (Urban)
(N = 55)

Sources	None	Some	Half	Most	All	No response
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Parents	9.1	32.7	3.6	38.2	9.1	7.3
Other relative	32.7	20	0.0	3.6	0.0	43.6
Part time work during year	20	40	5.5	1.8	0.0	32.7
Summer job	10.9	49.1	3.6	5.5	0.0	30.9
Canada Student Loan	20	18.2	5.5	16.4	0.0	40.0
Scholarship/Bursary	23.6	45.5	1.8	0.0	1.8	27.3
Other	23.6	5.5	0.0	3.6	0.0	67.3

Research Question 6

What factors influenced students' immediate career plans?

Students were asked to indicate on a four point scale the degree to which each of the factors listed had influenced their immediate career plans. The three factors that influenced the highest number of students a lot were the value placed on education in the home, father, and mother. More than a quarter (29.9%) of the students said that both the value placed on education in the home and father influenced their plans a lot, while 28.4% indicated that it was their mother who had a lot of influence on their plans. A smaller number of students (20.9%) said that their academic ability influenced their plans a lot (see Table 4.139).

Other factors such as friends, other family member, teacher, high school program, entrance requirements, and the value placed on work in the home influenced at least a little, the plans of at least half of the students (see Table 4.139).

Students were asked to rank factors according to which had the most, the second most, and the third most influence on their immediate career plans. As Table 4.140 shows, parents (40.4%), academic ability (28.4%), and the value placed on education in the home (23.9%) were the most frequently cited factors having either the most, the second most, or the third most influence on their plans for next year. Other factors that were identified by a fair number of the students (approximately 20%) were mother, father, friend(s), and high school program. Factors that were considered the most important by the fewest students were teacher and friend(s).

Table 4.139
Factors Influencing Immediate Career Plans of Urban Students
(N = 67)

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	8	11.9	12	17.9	28	41.8	19	28.4	0	0.0
Father	8	11.9	15	22.4	24	35.8	20	29.9	0	0.0
Other family member	29	43.4	14	20.9	18	26.9	5	7.5	1	1.5
Teacher	29	43.3	16	23.9	18	26.9	2	3.0	2	3.0
Guidance counsellor	55	82.1	6	9.0	2	3.0	3	4.5	1	1.5
Friend(s)	15	22.4	28	41.8	16	23.9	7	10.4	1	1.5
Person in community	39	58.2	7	10.4	17	25.4	3	4.5	1	1.5
Person outside community	48	71.6	10	14.9	7	10.4	0	0.0	2	3.0
High school program	25	37.3	19	28.4	14	20.9	8	11.9	1	1.5
Academic ability	16	23.9	11	16.4	25	37.3	14	20.9	1	1.5
Economic conditions in Newfoundland and Labrador	39	58.2	10	14.9	10	14.9	7	10.4	1	1.5

(continued)

Table 4.139 continued

Factor	Not at all		A little		Some		A lot		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Entrance requirements to post-secondary education	31	46.3	14	20.9	9	13.4	10	14.9	3	4.5
Desire to stay home or near home	35	52.2	12	17.9	8	11.9	11	16.4	1	1.5
Family financial situation	37	55.2	11	16.4	12	17.9	5	7.5	2	3.0
Personal financial situation	31	46.3	17	25.4	9	13.4	4	6.0	6	9.0
Value placed on education in home	18	26.9	9	13.4	18	26.9	20	29.9	2	3.0
Value placed on work in home	31	46.3	10	14.9	14	20.9	10	14.9	2	3.0

Table 4.140
Factors That Influenced Immediate Plans the Most (Urban)
(N = 67)

Factor	Most		2nd Most		3rd Most	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	8	11.9	3	4.5	2	3.0
Father	4	6.0	6	9.0	3	4.5
Other family member	3	4.5	2	3.0	3	4.5
Teacher	1	1.5	1	1.5	2	3.0
Guidance counsellor	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Friend(s)	1	1.5	6	9.0	5	7.5
Person in community	3	4.5	5	7.5	2	3.0
Person outside community	0	0.0	1	1.5	0	0.0
High school program	4	6.0	3	4.5	5	7.5
Academic ability	6	9.0	8	11.9	5	7.5
Economic conditions in Newfoundland & Labrador	2	3.0	3	4.5	2	3.0
Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	3	4.5	5	7.5	2	3.0
Desire to stay home	3	4.5	2	3.0	5	7.5
Family financial situation	2	3.0	0	0.0	4	6.0
Personal financial situation	0	0.0	2	3.0	0	0.0
Value on education at home	3	4.5	7	10.4	6	9.0
Value on work at home	0	0.0	1	1.5	1	1.5
Parents	18	26.9	6	9.0	3	4.5
No response	6	9.0	6	9.0	17	25.4

Research Question 7

What factors did students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans?

Table 4.141 summarizes student responses when asked to identify how much of a problem each of five variables was in their career decision making plans. The majority of students (62.7%) indicated that the most problematic factor in making their career plans was the cost of furthering their education. Although more students identified knowing what interests me (13.4%) rather than knowing what occupations are available (7.5%) was a serious problem for them, both factors were equally mentioned by a majority (58.2%) as having been at least somewhat problematic in making their career decisions. High school preparation and having to leave home were of the least concern to an approximately equal majority of students (62.7% and 61.2%).

Table 4.141
Potential Problems in Making Career Plans (Urban)
(N = 67)

Problem	Not a problem		Somewhat problem		Serious problem	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
High school preparation	42	62.7	25	37.3	0	0.0
Having to leave home	41	61.2	21	31.3	5	7.5
Knowing what interests me	28	41.8	30	44.8	9	13.4
Knowing what careers available	28	41.8	34	50.7	5	7.5
The costs of furthering my education	25	37.3	29	43.3	13	19.4

Research Question 8

What are students' perceptions on parents' level of agreement with their immediate career plans?

As Table 4.142 indicates, high majorities of students indicated their mother (92.6%) and father (89.6%) at least mostly agreed with their immediate career plans. Less than 10% indicated either parent disagreed, to any extent, with their plans.

Table 4.142
Parental Level of Agreement With Immediate Career Plans of Urban Students
(N = 67)

Parent	Agrees completely		Agrees mostly		Disagrees Some		Disagrees A lot		Doesn't apply		No response	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	45	67.2	17	25.4	4	6.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.5
Father	42	62.7	18	26.9	2	3.0	1	1.5	3	4.5	1	1.5

Research Question 9

What are students' perceptions regarding what their parents think they should do immediately after high school graduation?

80.7% of students felt their mothers and a smaller number (71.7%) their fathers wanted them to pursue further education immediately after high school graduation (see Table 4.143). In fact, 26.9% indicated that their mother and 17.9% their father insisted that they continue their education next year. Some indicated their mother (10.4%) and their father (11.9%) thought they should work while they continue their education while slightly fewer students said their mother (7.5%) and father (9.0%) thought they should just start working.

Table 4.143
Parents' Thoughts on What Their Students Should Do Next Year (Urban)
(N = 67)

Response	Mother		Father	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Start working for pay	5	7.5	6	9.0
Insist on continuing education	18	26.9	12	17.9
Definitely like me to continue education	31	46.3	33	49.3
Might like me to continue education	5	7.5	3	4.5
Work and continue education	7	10.4	8	11.9
Doesn't care what I do	1	1.5	2	3.0
Don't know what they want me to do	0	0.0	1	1.5
Doesn't apply	0	0.0	2	3.0

Research Question 10

What are students' perceptions of their self-esteem and community attachment?

Table 4.144 summarizes student responses to seven statements of positive self esteem. Anywhere from 76.1% to 91% of the students expressed agreement with each statement. The majority of students indicated they had a positive sense of self-esteem as defined by the seven statements.

Table 4.144
Statements of Positive Self-Esteem (Urban)
(N = 67)

Statement: I am...	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a good learner	22	32.8	39	58.2	5	7.5	1	1.5	0	0.0
happy with myself, for the most part	20	29.9	37	55.2	7	10.4	3	4.5	0	0.0
able to accomplish whatever I put my mind to	17	25.4	34	50.7	14	20.9	1	1.5	1	1.5
capable of training for any occupation I like	21	31.3	30	44.8	14	20.9	2	3.0	0	0.0
as academically capable as most of my classmates	22	32.8	33	49.3	9	13.4	1	1.5	2	3.0
liked by my peers	17	25.6	41	61.2	9	13.4	0	0.0	0	0.0
likely to be successful at whatever I choose to do in life	28	41.8	26	38.8	12	17.9	1	1.5	0	0.0

Table 4.145 displays student responses to statements on community attachment. The majority of students (71.7%) indicated they liked living in their home community. Responses varied on the remaining statements expressing some level of emotional attachment to their community. While the number of students was almost evenly divided as to whether or not they preferred to stay near their home community to work, slightly more of the students indicated they would not feel torn having to leave their community either to further their education or to find work. However, a number of students (>20%) indicated they would feel torn having to leave their community for such reasons.

Table 4.145
Statements of Community Attachment (Urban)
(N = 67)

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Like living in community	18	26.9	30	44.8	9	13.4	8	11.9	2	3.0
Feel torn having to leave to find work	8	11.9	16	23.9	12	17.9	17	25.4	14	20.9
Feel torn having to leave to further education	6	9.0	10	14.9	18	26.9	18	26.9	15	22.4
Prefer to stay in/near home community to work	9	13.4	17	25.4	16	23.9	14	20.9	11	16.4

Research Question 11

Are there gender differences on students' career aspirations?

Chi-square analysis was performed on student occupational choices of urban students to determine if gender differences were statistically significant at the $p<0.05$ level. "No responses" were excluded along with occupational choices made by a total of fewer than five respondents in order to strengthen the analysis.

As can be seen in Table 4.146 there were no statistically significant gender differences in the occupational choices of urban students. Some differences, however, did exist. More of the males than females aspired to occupations in natural science, engineering and mathematics (32% compared to 12%) and transport equipment operating (16% compared to 0%) that have traditionally been male-dominated occupational areas. More females than males, however, aspired to occupations in medicine and health (28% compared to 8%) and social sciences (20% compared to 0%).

Table 4.146
Future Occupational Choices of Urban Students by Gender
(N = 50)

Occupational Group	Males (N = 25)		Females (N = 25)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Managerial, administrative and related occupations	1	4.0	1	4.0
Occupations in natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	8	32.0	3	12.0
Occupations in social sciences and related fields	2	8.0	5	20.0
Occupations in religion	1	4.0	0	0.0
Teaching and related occupations	0	0.0	5	20.0
Occupations in medicine and health	2	8.0	7	28.0
Artistic, literary, performing arts and related occupations	2	8.0	3	12.0
Occupations in sport and recreation	1	4.0	0	0.0
Service occupations	1	4.0	0	0.0
Product fabricating, assembling and repairing occupations	1	4.0	1	4.0
Construction trades occupations	1	4.0	0	0.0
Transport equipment operating occupations	4	16.0	0	0.0
Don't know	1	4.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 20.54$ $p = 0.06$

Analysis of the GED and SVP level of student occupational choices revealed no significant gender differences (see Tables 4.147 and 4.148). However, it was noted that more females than males aspired to occupations with a GED level of five or six (92% versus 72%) and a SVP level of seven (52% versus 16%).

Table 4.147
GED Level of Occupational Choices by Gender (Urban)
(N = 50)

GED	Males (N = 25)		Females (N = 25)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	1	4.0	0	0.0
2	1	4.0	0	0.0
3	3	12.0	1	4.0
4	2	8.0	1	4.0
5	13	52.0	16	64.0
6	5	20.0	7	28.0

$x^2 = 3.98$ $p = 0.55$

Table 4.148
SVP Level of Occupational Choices by Gender (Urban)
(N = 50)

SVP	Males (N = 25)		Females (N = 25)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
0	1	4.0	0	0.0
2	1	4.0	0	0.0
3	1	4.0	1	4.0
4	1	4.0	0	0.0
6	6	24.0	1	4.0
7	4	16.0	13	52.0
8	11	44.0	10	40.0

$x^2 = 11.38$ $p = 0.08$

Research Question 12

Are there gender differences on students' immediate career plans?

No statistically significant gender differences existed in the immediate career plans of urban students. The only noteworthy difference was that none of the males compared to 6.3% of the females planned to take the year off (see Table 4.149).

Table 4.149
Immediate Career Plans of Urban Students by Gender
(N = 67)

Plans	Male (N = 35)		Female (N = 32)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Furthering education	29	82.9	26	81.3
Working	4	11.4	4	12.5
Taking a year off	0	0.0	2	6.3
Returning to high school	1	2.9	0	0.0
No plans	1	2.9	0	0.0

$x^2 = 4.04$ $p = 0.40$

While gender differences were not statistically significant on the type and location of post-secondary institution to be attended next year, it was noted that a higher percentage of females (80.8%) than males (62.1%) planned to attend Memorial University. More of the males (17.1% versus 0%), however, indicated they planned to attend a college either within or outside the province (see Table 4.150).

Table 4.150
Type and Location of Institution by Gender (Urban)
(N = 55)

Institution	Males (N = 29)		Females (N = 26)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Memorial University of Newfoundland	18	62.1	21	80.8
University outside province	5	17.2	5	19.2
Public college in province	1	3.4	0	0.0
Public college outside province	1	3.4	0	0.0
Private college outside province	3	10.3	0	0.0
Don't know	1	3.4	0	0.0

$x^2 = 6.08$ $p = 0.30$

Research Question 13

Are there gender differences on students' future career expectations?

Three questions on expected employment status, occupation, and area of residence in five to ten years were examined for gender differences. Table 4.151 shows that gender differences on expected employment status were not statistically significant. The greatest difference was that a higher percentage of males (22.9% versus 15.6%) expected to be furthering their education in five to ten years. As well, slightly more females (12.5%) than males (5.7%) expected they would be employed as they furthered their education.

Table 4.151
Employment Status Expectations of Urban Students in 5-10 Years by Gender (N = 67)

Employment status	Males (N = 35)		Females (N = 32)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Full-time employment	21	60.0	18	56.3
Part-time/seasonal and collecting E.I.	2	5.7	0	0.0
Full-time and homemaker	2	5.7	3	9.4
Part-time/seasonal and homemaker	0	0.0	1	3.1
Furthering education	8	22.9	5	15.6
Employed and furthering education	2	5.7	4	12.5
Unemployed but homemaker	0	0.0	1	3.1

$x^2 = 5.67$ $p = 0.46$

No significant gender differences existed with respect to the occupational expectations of those urban students who indicated they would have either full or part-time employment in five to ten years (see Table 4.152). However, a higher percentage of the females expected their occupation to be the same as the one they aspired towards (83.3% versus 73.1%) while more males (26.9% versus 16.7%) expected it to be different.

Table 4.152
Future Occupational Expectations of Urban Students by Gender
(N = 50)

Future expectations	Males (N = 26)		Females (N = 24)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Same	19	73.1	20	83.3
Different	7	26.9	4	16.7

$x^2 = 0.76$ p =0.38

As can be seen in Table 4.153, gender differences that existed on expectations of future living location were not statistically significant. While a higher percentage of females felt they would be living in their hometown and a higher percentage of males felt they would be living elsewhere either inside or outside the province, those differences were quite small.

Table 4.153
Expected Future Residence Location by Gender (Urban)
(N = 66)

Location	Males (N = 34)		Females (N = 32)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Hometown	10	29.4	11	34.4
Within province, but not hometown	2	5.9	1	3.1
Outside province	22	64.7	19	59.4
Don't know	0	0.0	1	3.1

$x^2 = 1.54$ p = 0.67

Research Question 14

Are there gender differences on students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation?

As can be seen in Table 4.154, a chi-square analysis of students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation revealed no statistically significant gender differences at the 0.05 level. Differences that existed were based on low numbers from a sample size and therefore the significance of differences could not be adequately determined.

Table 4.154
Reasons for Not Continuing Education by Gender (Urban)
(N = 11)

Reason	Males (N = 6)		Females (N = 5)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
Costs too much money	0	0.0	2	40.0	2.93	0.09
May not have enough money for school	1	16.7	0	0.0	0.92	0.34
Would have to leave home community	0	0.0	1	20.0	1.32	0.25
I feel I don't have the ability to do well	1	16.7	0	0.0	0.92	0.34
Haven't decided on program	3	50.0	4	80.0	1.06	0.30
Don't have grades to meet entrance requirements	1	16.7	1	20.0	0.02	0.89

(continued)

Table 4.154 continued

Reason	Males (N = 6)		Females (N = 5)		Chi-square	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	x^2	p
Needed at home	0	0.0	0	0.0	---	---
No desire to further education at this time	1	16.7	1	20.0	0.02	0.89
Furthering education/ training not necessary to get a job	1	16.7	0	0.0	0.92	0.34
Chance to go to work	1	16.7	2	40.0	0.75	0.39
Getting married	0	0.0	0	0.0	---	---
Other	1	16.7	0	0.0	0.92	0.34

Students could give more than one reason. The totals for each reason are displayed in the table.

As Table 4.155 shows, no statistically significant differences were identified with respect to reasons felt to be most important in deciding not to pursue post-secondary education next year. Twice as many females as males, however, noted that not having decided what program they would like to do was the most important reason for planning not to further their education. Given the low response rate for this item, gender differences were based on low numbers of respondents thus making the statistical significance of the differences difficult to determine.

Table 4.155
Most Important Reason for Deciding Not to Pursue Post-Secondary Education by Gender (Urban)
(N = 5)

Reason	Males (N = 2)		Females (N = 3)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I haven't decided what program I'd like to do	1	50.0	3	100
I have no desire to further my education at this time	1	50.0	0	0.0

$x^2 = 1.88$ $p = 0.17$

Research Question 15

Are there gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans?

As can be seen in Table 4.156, there was significant gender difference on one factor. A significantly higher percentage of females (42% versus 11.8%) indicated that the financial situation of their family had a least some influence on their immediate career plans. A greater proportion of the males (23.5% versus 9.7%), indicated, however, that the same factor influenced their career plans for next year a little. As well, a greater percentage of males (64.7% versus 48.4%) than females indicated that the financial situation of their family did not influence their plans at all.

Although not statistically significant, there were gender differences with respect to factors that influenced plans. Higher percentages of females indicated that factors such as mother, the economic condition in Newfoundland, and personal financial situation influenced

their immediate occupational plans. Higher percentages of males indicated that factors such as father, the desire to stay at or near home, and the value placed on work in the home had a lot of influence on their career plans for next year (see Table 4.156).

Table 4.156
Factors That Influenced Immediate Career Plans by Gender (Urban)

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Mother	8.6	14.3	51.4	25.7	15.6	21.9	31.3	31.3	3.04	0.38
Father	2.9	22.9	40.0	34.3	21.9	21.9	31.3	25.0	5.91	0.12
Other family member	38.2	23.5	29.4	8.8	50.0	18.8	25.0	6.3	0.96	0.81
Teacher	42.4	33.3	24.2	0.0	46.9	15.6	31.3	6.3	4.5	0.21
Guidance counsellor	85.3	11.8	0.0	2.9	81.3	6.3	6.3	6.3	3.11	0.38
Friend(s)	17.6	47.1	26.5	8.8	28.1	37.5	21.9	12.5	1.51	0.68
Person in community	58.8	5.9	32.4	2.9	59.4	15.6	18.8	6.3	3.06	0.38
Person outside community	70.6	14.7	14.7	0.0	77.4	16.1	6.5	0.0	1.15	0.56
High school program	47.1	26.5	14.7	11.8	28.1	31.3	28.1	12.5	3.10	0.38
Academic ability	32.4	17.6	26.5	23.5	15.6	15.6	50.0	18.8	4.53	0.21
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	64.7	14.7	14.7	5.9	53.1	15.6	15.6	15.6	1.87	0.60

(continued)

Table 4.156 continued

Factor	Male				Female				x^2	p
	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %	Not at all %	A little %	Some %	A lot %		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	48.5	24.2	15.2	12.1	48.4	19.4	12.9	19.4	0.77	0.86
Desire to stay home or near home	60.0	8.6	11.4	20.0	45.2	29.0	12.9	12.9	4.99	0.17
Financial situation of family	64.7	23.5	5.9	5.9	48.4	9.7	32.3	9.7	9.01	0.03*
Personal financial situation	48.5	36.4	12.1	3.0	53.6	17.9	17.9	10.7	3.64	0.30
Value placed on education in home	35.3	8.8	23.5	32.4	19.4	19.4	32.3	29.0	3.29	0.35
Value placed on work in home	47.1	8.8	23.5	20.6	48.4	22.6	19.4	9.7	3.39	0.34

*statistically significant ($p<0.05$)

Table 4.157 shows that a statistically significant gender difference existed on one factor that had a least a little influence on students' immediate career plans. A significantly higher proportion of males (97%) than females (78%) indicated that their father had a least a little influence on their career plans for the year following high school graduation.

Although the differences were not significant, higher percentages of males also indicated that factors such as mother, other family member, friends, and personal financial situation influenced their plans at least a little. Higher percentages of females, however, said that factors such as high school program, academic ability, the economic condition in Newfoundland, the desire to stay at or near home, the financial situation of their family, and the value placed on education in the home had at least a little influence on their immediate career plans (see Table 4.157).

Table 4.157
Factors That Had at Least a Little Influence on Immediate Plans by Gender (Urban)

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Mother	32	91.4	29	84.4	0.79	0.37
Father	34	97.0	25	78.0	5.75	0.02*
Other family member	21	61.8	16	50.0	0.93	0.34
Teacher	19	57.6	17	53.1	0.13	0.72
Guidance Counsellor	5	14.7	6	18.8	0.19	0.66
Friend(s)	28	82.4	23	71.9	1.03	0.31
Person in community	14	41.2	13	40.6	0.0	0.96
Person outside community	10	29.4	7	22.6	0.39	0.53
High school program	18	52.9	23	71.9	2.51	0.11
Academic ability	23	67.6	27	84.4	2.51	0.11
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	12	35.3	15	46.9	0.92	0.34

(continued)

Table 4.157 continued

Factor	Male		Female		x^2	p
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions	17	51.5	16	51.6	0.0	0.99
Desire to stay home or near home	14	40.0	17	54.8	1.45	0.23
Financial situation of family	12	35.3	16	51.6	1.76	0.18
Personal financial situation	17	51.5	13	46.4	0.16	0.69
Value placed on education in home	22	64.7	25	80.6	2.06	0.15
Value placed on work in home	18	52.9	16	51.6	0.01	0.92

*statistically significant ($p<0.05$)

As can be seen in Table 4.158, gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans the most were not statistically significant using the $p<0.05$ level of significance. Observed differences indicated a higher percentage of females who indicated factors such as mother and high school program influenced their plans for next year the most while more of the males identified factors such as father, other family member, academic ability and parents.

Table 4.158
Factors Considered to Have Influenced Immediate Plans the Most by Gender (Urban) (N = 61)

Factor	Male (N = 31)		Female (N=30)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Mother	3	9.7	5	16.7
Father	3	9.7	1	3.3
Other family member	3	9.7	0	0.0
Teacher	0	0.0	1	3.3
Guidance Counsellor	0	0.0	0	0.0
Friend(s)	1	3.2	0	0.0
Person in community	2	6.5	1	3.3
Person outside community	0	0.0	0	0.0
High school program	0	0.0	4	13.3
Academic ability	4	12.9	2	6.7
Economic condition in Newfoundland & Labrador	0	0.0	2	6.7

(continued)

Table 4.158 continued

Factor	Male (N = 31)		Female (N=30)	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	1	3.2	2	6.7
Desire to stay home or near home	1	3.2	2	6.7
Financial situation of family	1	3.2	1	3.3
Personal financial situation	0	0.0	0	0.0
Value placed on education in home	2	6.5	1	3.3
Value placed on work in home	0	0.0	0	0.0
Parents	10	32.3	8	26.7

$x^2 = 14.71$ $p = 0.33$

Research Question 16

Are there gender differences on factors perceived by students to be problematic in deciding career plans?

An examination of gender differences on perceived problems in deciding career plans revealed some differences between the genders. While the most frequently cited concerns for females were costs of furthering one's education (31.3%) followed by knowing what careers are available, and knowing what interests me (12.5% each), for the males they were knowing what interests me (14.3%) followed by the cost of furthering their education (8.5%). Gender responses to the costs of furthering one's education were also significantly different ($x^2 = 5.92$, $p = 0.05$). A much higher percentage of females considered it to be seriously

problematic concern in deciding on their career plans (see Table 4.159). While the differences were not statistically significant, slightly more females perceived knowing what careers are available and leaving home to be problematic as well.

Summary

To summarize the main findings of this chapter, data analysis revealed that a large majority (82%) of the students had an occupational choice. The majority of students aspired to stereotypical gender occupations from the following four occupational categories: medicine and health; natural sciences, engineering and math; service; and social sciences. More females, however, were more willing to select occupations in nontraditional areas.

Results also revealed that almost 75% of the students planned to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation with the majority of those planning to pursue a university education at Memorial University of Newfoundland. However, almost one quarter of the students planned to attend a post-secondary institution outside the province.

For those who planned not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation, the most frequently cited reasons were: not knowing what program to do, the opportunity to go to work, lack of academic qualifications, and the high cost of post-secondary education.

As for their outlook for future employment, 75% of the students expected to be

Table 4.159
Potential Problems in Deciding Career Plans by Gender (Urban)
(N = 67)

Potential problem	Male (N = 35)			Female (N = 32)			x^2	p
	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %	Not a problem %	Somewhat problem %	Serious problem %		
High school preparation	65.7	34.3	0.0	59.4	40.6	0.0	0.29	0.59
Having to leave home	71.4	22.9	5.7	50.0	40.6	9.4	3.24	0.20
Knowing what interests me	45.7	40.0	14.3	37.5	50.0	12.5	0.68	0.71
Knowing what careers are available	48.6	48.6	2.9	34.4	53.1	12.5	2.96	0.23
Costs of furthering education	45.7	45.7	8.5	28.1	40.6	31.3	5.92	0.05*

*statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

employed full-time in five to ten years, with most (71%) expecting it to be in the job to which they are aspiring. Over two thirds (68.8%) of the students expected to be working and living outside the province.

Results showed that students perceived that their parents played the most significant role in influencing their future career plans. Females felt that their mother was most influential in their plans while males perceived their fathers as being most influential.

This concludes a summary of the main findings in this chapter. A more detailed summary along with conclusions and recommendations follow in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This exploratory study investigated the career aspirations, immediate career plans, and future career expectations of a sample of rural and urban Level III students in Newfoundland and Labrador who graduated in June 1999. Guided by 16 research questions, a questionnaire was developed and administered to students from both rural and urban areas of Newfoundland and Labrador. The questionnaire developed for this study was similar to one used in the Youth Transition into the Labour Market (YTLM) survey conducted by Sharpe and Spain (1991), and one subsequently developed by Genge (1996) for her study. Although initially the intention of this study was to compare the rural and urban samples for statistically significant differences, a substantial rural bias existed due to the much lower response rate from the urban population and therefore such analysis was not conducted. Instead, data analysis was performed separately on each of the combined, rural, and urban samples with results reported accordingly.

This chapter is organized into three sections. The first section provides a summary and discussion of each research question as applied to each of the three samples. The second section provides some overall conclusions, and the third section outlines some recommendations.

Summary and Discussion

The majority (61.3%) of participants in this study were rural students. Each of the samples was fairly evenly distributed by gender. As expected for Level III, the majority of students who participated in this study were 17 and 18 years old. With respect to grades, over three-quarters of students indicated they had averages in the 65 and above range for both last year and this year. It is noteworthy that while the greatest number of urban students indicated overall averages for both years in the 65-79 grade range, the greatest number of rural students indicated overall averages in the 80 and above grade range. Although its statistical significance cannot be determined, it is interesting that a higher percentage of the rural students indicated overall averages in the below average range. One possible explanation is that the rural sample was more representative than the urban sample of the overall student population from which it was drawn.

When this year's overall averages for the combined sample were compared by gender, significantly more females than males indicated overall averages in the 80 and above grade range. When the comparison was made separately for each of the rural and urban samples, the gender difference remained statistically significant for the rural sample only.

With respect to the education level of parents, the majority of both parents had completed at least a high school education and approximately half of the fathers and half of the mothers had a level of education beyond high school graduation. Interestingly, mothers generally outnumbered fathers in education levels at and above high school graduation.

Most rural parents had achieved levels of education below either college or university

graduation while the majority of urban parents in this study were either college or university graduates. Almost half the rural fathers had less than a high school education while over two-thirds of the urban fathers were either university or college graduates. While the statistical significance of such a difference is not known, these findings are consistent with literature which indicated that low levels of education attainment among the adult population has been a distinguishing feature in rural areas (Conrad, 1997; House, 1989; Jeffery, Lehr, and Hache, 1992).

Over three-quarters of both parents in the total sample were employed either full or part-time. About two-thirds of the fathers and slightly more than half the mothers had full-time employment. Slightly more than half of rural fathers and slightly less than half the rural mothers had full-time employment. For the urban sample, over three-quarters of the fathers and slightly less than two-thirds of the mothers worked full-time. While approximately 10% of all fathers were unemployed, the overall rate of unemployed mothers was double due to the higher rate of unemployed mothers in the rural sample.

Overall, the most frequently cited occupations for fathers fell under four major occupational groups: teaching and related occupations; forestry, logging and related occupations; managerial, administrative, and related occupations; and construction trades occupations. Not surprisingly, the most frequently cited occupations for rural fathers were in forestry and logging, construction trades, mining, product fabricating, and teaching. Given the downturn in the fishery over the last number of years, it was not surprising that the number of fathers employed in the fishery was small (4.0%).

As expected, the most frequently cited occupations for urban fathers fell under the occupational groups of managerial, administrative, and related occupations, teaching and related occupations, and natural science, engineering and mathematics. None of the urban fathers had occupations in the primary industries of fishing, forestry, or mining.

Almost two-thirds (64.1%) of mothers' occupations were in one of the following six occupational categories: medicine and health; clerical; teaching and related occupations; service; sales; and managerial, administrative and related occupations. The largest number of rural mothers had service occupations followed by those with occupations in either the clerical or medicine and health fields. The largest number of urban mothers' occupations were in medicine and health occupations followed by those in either teaching or clerical occupations.

When GED and SVP levels were used to compare occupations, the majority of both parent's occupations had a GED of four or lower while the SVP level for the majority of both parent's occupations was five and higher. A majority of rural parents' occupations had low GED levels but generally high SVP levels. Most occupations of the urban parents had high GED and SVP levels.

Research Question 1

What are the students' career aspirations?

Most students listed an occupational choice. Most choices were divided among four categories: medicine and health; natural science, engineering and mathematics; social

sciences; and service occupations. While no students aspired to occupations related to the fishery, very few students were interested in occupations in any other of the primary resources areas of forestry and logging (2.3%), mining (including oil and gas field occupations) (1.2%), and farming (0.6%). It is interesting to note that the students who did aspire to these careers were from the rural areas.

These findings are consistent with those in Genge's (1996) study of rural Level III students from the Northern Peninsula and Sharpe and Spain's (1991) province-wide Youth Transition into the Labour Market study of Level III students who graduated in 1989. In all three studies, the majority of student choices fell under the same four occupational categories.

Student career choices were, for the most part, consistent with areas that promise future employment. Except for social sciences, all occupational areas listed by the majority of students are expected to experience future employment growth both in Newfoundland and throughout Canada (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998b). It is possible that students' choices were influenced by such employment prospects. Given the downturn and economic uncertainty within the primary industries of the province, particularly in fishing and forestry and logging, it is not surprising that only a few students were interested in pursuing careers within such industries. It is interesting to note, however, that despite the positive outlook in Newfoundland and Labrador's mining and oil industries, very few of the rural students and none of the urban students aspired to careers in these fields. It is possible that, as Genge (1996) suggested, the fishery crisis influenced student choices more than the discovery and development of minerals at Voisey's Bay and the production of oil at Hibernia.

As well, lack of student awareness as to the variety of nontraditional occupational opportunities forecasted in these areas may also explain the low level of interest in occupations within the primary industries. Despite current job growth in the service sector, it was noted that a small number of urban students expressed interest in occupations in this area. Since many service occupations are low paying jobs, it is possible few urban students were willing to plan their future in this occupational area.

Another way to examine the career aspirations of Level III students is to look at an occupation's General Education Development (GED) and Specific Vocational Preparation time (SVP). GED is a numerical expression of the level of reasoning, and the mathematical and language skills required for a particular occupation with 1 reflecting a very basic level and 6 indicating the highest. SVP refers to the amount of training required for a particular occupation. SVP levels range from 1 to 9, with 1 representing a short time demonstration, and 9, representing over 10 years of education and training.

The majority of occupational choices made by the students in this study had generally high GED and SVP levels. Over two-thirds of students' choices require a level of reasoning development and skill equivalent to at least thirteen years of formal schooling and approximately three-quarters of their choices require at least two years of education and training. These findings need to be interpreted in the context of Canada's labour market. Given the growing number of occupations in the Canadian labour market that require at least one to two years of post-secondary training, the occupations aspired to by the students in this study did reflect this trend. This finding was consistent, as well, with that of Sharpe and

Spain (1991).

While the largest number of students indicated that they have been interested in their career choices for more than two years, the majority have been interested for at least one year. This suggests that most students are not making serious career decisions until their senior high school years. It is interesting that a higher percentage of the urban students were interested in their career choices for longer periods than the rural students. Over half the rural and urban students knew someone in the occupation they aspired towards and most of them had discussed the occupation with that person. Interestingly, Sharpe and Spain's (1991) study also found that most students discussed their career plans with a person in the occupation. The majority of students became interested in their aspired career through factors other than significant people in their lives such as parents, teachers, and friends. It appears that personal interests and activities and the media helped more students in choosing specific occupations than people who are generally considered significant others in their lives. It is quite interesting that teachers and guidance counsellors were credited with generating an occupational interest in a very small number of students. This is similar to Sharpe and Spain's (1991) findings in which few students had discussed their career plans with either teachers or guidance counsellors. It should be noted, however, that some of the "other" factors students listed such as career days, school courses, and reading which they perceived to have sparked their interest in a particular occupation were in all probability the result of a teacher and/or guidance counsellor who facilitated the occasion.

Research Question 2

What are students' immediate career plans?

Most of the students in this study had plans for the year after high school graduation. Approximately 75% planned to further their education at a post-secondary institution. These findings are higher than those in Genge's (1996) study of rural Level III students and Sharpe and Spain's (1991) province-wide YTLM study of Level III students who graduated in 1989. While approximately 60% of the students in the 1991 study planned to pursue post-secondary education immediately following graduation, approximately 65% planned to do the same in the 1996 study.

When examined separately, a higher percentage of the urban than rural students planned to attend a post-secondary institution next year. While the significance of this difference could not be determined, the fact that most of the post-secondary institutions are located in the urban center is one possible explanation for this finding.

It was not surprising that overall, the majority of students planned to attend Memorial University of Newfoundland. While the largest number of rural students planned to pursue their post-secondary education at Memorial University, they did not comprise a majority within their sample. However, over two-thirds of the urban students selected Memorial University for their post-secondary education plans next year.

While the overall results were consistent with those of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991) in that the largest portion of students in each study selected Memorial University of Newfoundland for their post-secondary plans, the group in Sharpe and Spain's

(1991) study did not comprise a majority while they did in the other two. It should be noted, however, that unlike Genge's (1996) findings, which were based on a rural sample alone, less than a majority of the rural students in this study selected Memorial University. This needs to be interpreted in light of the fact that, unlike this study, the selection totals in Genge's (1996) study included more than one institutional choice for some students. As well, while Genge's (1996) questionnaire listed the St. John's and Corner Brook campuses as separate institutions, this distinction was not made on the questionnaire for this study.

When examined separately, a much higher percentage of the rural students than urban students indicated plans to pursue post-secondary education at a college rather than a university. A large percentage of the rural students in Genge's (1996) study also planned to attend college rather than university in the year immediately following high school graduation.

It is possible that more of the occupations aspired to by rural students require college-type training while many urban students could be aspiring to occupations that require university-type training. As well, given the higher cost of pursuing post-secondary education for the rural students in this study, it is possible that more of the rural students have chosen post-secondary education programs that can be completed in shorter time periods than university programs. Given the large percentage of rural outmigration to seek employment in other parts of Canada, it appears many rural students are planning to pursue college programs which they feel will provide them employment more quickly and less expensively than a university education.

There is evidence in the literature that more rural than urban students aspire to college-type programs. Conrad (1997) noted that according to the U.S. Department of Education in 1980, significantly fewer rural than urban students planned on attaining a university degree and aspired more towards vocational education.

Approximately one-quarter of each of the rural and urban groups of students planned to go outside the province to attend a post-secondary institution. When compared to the findings of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991), it appears this trend has grown. While the percentage of the students in Genge's (1996) study was slightly less at 19.2%. Sharpe and Spain's (1991) results were approximately half the percentages of those in this study.

Based on the assumption that those who decided not to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school would look for work, it was found that the majority of this group believed they would be employed in low paying occupations mainly within the sales and service industries. This was consistent with the findings of Sharpe and Spain (1991). Most students believed they would be working within the province and the majority of them expected to be employed in or near their hometown area. Not surprisingly, a much bigger majority of the urban students felt they would be employed in their hometown given the broader range of employment opportunities that will likely exist for them in an urban center such as St. John's.

With respect to pursuing post-secondary education at a later time, the majority of those students expected they would while a fair number (11 out of 44 or 25%) felt they would

not or were uncertain. Interestingly, a much higher percentage of rural than urban students expressed uncertainty on this matter. The follow-up report of the 1995 and 1996 high school graduates conducted by the provincial Department of Education also found that the majority of those not attending a post-secondary institution planned to do so at a later time (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998a).

Research Question 3

What are the students' future career expectations?

A vast majority of students expected to have either full-time or part-time/seasonal employment in five to ten years. Three-quarters of them expected to be employed full-time including those who also expected to be a homemaker at that time. While these results were consistent with those of Sharp and Spain (1991), they differed from Genge's (1996) results due to the high degree of uncertainty expressed by her sample regarding future employment expectations. In that sample, almost one-third (29.2%) were unsure whether they would be working in a career, as a homemaker, or be doing both in five to ten years.

When the rural and urban groups in this study were examined separately, a much higher percentage of the rural sample (81.1%) compared to the urban sample (65.7%) expected to be employed full-time in five to ten years. This was surprising given the positive economic outlook and the growing number of employment prospects in and around the province's major urban center. It was noted, however, that compared to the rural students, a larger portion of the urban students expected to be either furthering their education or

employed while they furthered their education in five to ten years. This, no doubt, would account for most of the apparent difference.

The majority of students in this study (82.1%) expected to be living somewhere other than their hometown area in five to ten years. Over two-thirds (68.8%) believed they would be residing outside the province. 92.5% of the rural students did not expect to be living in their hometown area and almost three-quarters (73.6%) expected to be living outside the province. Not surprisingly, while more of the urban students expected to be living in their hometown areas, the majority indicated they expected to be living outside the province.

These findings, overall, are consistent with those of Genge (1996). Given that Genge's sample was rural, however, a comparison with the rural sample in this study revealed some interesting differences. More of the rural students in this study (92.5% compared to 81.8%) expected to be living away from their hometown. As well, 47.9% of Genge's sample compared to 73.6% of the rural students in this study felt they would be living outside the province.

Clearly, the number of students who expect they will have to leave their hometown and most likely the province to find employment has increased. This is not surprising given the lack of opportunity and interest in occupations in the forestry, logging, mining, and fishing industries which have traditionally been the main sources of employment for many Newfoundlanders. As well, these findings are not unexpected given the growing trend of outmigration of families and youth from this province, particularly from rural Newfoundland, in order to gain employment. This expectation possibly explains the students' high level of

certainty regarding future employment.

Most students believed that they would be employed in their desired occupations. This would suggest that most students are planning for careers where they expect to find employment.

Research Question 4

What are students' reasons for deciding not to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation?

Students indicated a number of different reasons for deciding not to continue their education immediately following Level III. The most common reasons included: not having decided on a program, having a chance to work, the high cost of post-secondary education, and not having the grades to meet entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions. Failure to meet post-secondary entrance requirements was cited by the largest number of students as the most important reason followed by not knowing what program to do.

Genge (1996) as well as Sharpe and Spain (1991) reported similar results. However, while lack of money was cited more frequently in these studies as a reason for not pursing post-secondary education, lack of academic qualifications was a more frequently cited reason for the students in this study.

Community attachment was to some extent a barrier to post-secondary education for some of the rural students in this study. Although none of the students indicated it as the main reason for deciding not to further their education next year, a number of them indicated

it as one of the reasons for their decision.

These findings are similar to those of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991). Looker (1993) in a study involving youth from Nova Scotia also reported that community attachment was a barrier to post-secondary education. Based on similar findings, Genge (1996) concluded, however, that community attachment was not a barrier at all because none of the students indicated it as the main reason for planning not to continue their education or training. It could be concluded, however, that since some students in all three studies listed having to leave their home community as a reason for not pursing post-secondary education next year, community attachment was a barrier for these rural students to some extent.

There is evidence in the literature that rural youth tend to be strongly attached to their home communities which ultimately influences their career plans. Hektner (1995) found a greater prevalence of potential conflict among rural students between their perceived importance of staying in their home communities and their desire to achieve economic security by moving away. Furthermore, Rojewski et al. (1995) argued that such conflict influences the career development of rural youth resulting in planned delays to pursue post-secondary education, career indecision, and difficulty in formulating definite career plans. The findings of this study, however, did not strongly support this argument.

Research Question 5

How do students' plan to fund their post-secondary education for next year?

The largest group of students (41.9%) believed that the main source of funding for

their first year of post-secondary education would be student loans. A slightly less number of students expected their parents to provide at least half the necessary funds. Almost 80% of students, however, expected their parents to provide at least some financial support. Urban students differed somewhat in that most felt their parents would be the main source of funding for their education.

Most students expected to fund their education through a combination of two or more sources which include parents, student loans, summer jobs, part-time work, and scholarships/bursaries. Approximately 10% of students felt all their required funds would come from one source only.

These results are as expected and are consistent with those of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991). In Genge's (1996) study, however, parents rather than student loans were expected to be the main source of funding for the largest number of students.

Research Question 6

What factors influenced students' immediate career plans?

Students' career plans were influenced by several different factors. These included parents, friends, the value placed on education at home, and academic ability. The factors that had the most influence were parents, followed by friends and academic ability.

When the rural and urban students were considered separately, their perceptions differed somewhat with respect to factors that were most influential. While friends were cited as one of the factors that influenced the career plans of rural students the most, it was

not a very influential factor in the career plans of the urban youth. This may not be necessarily surprising given the closer and more interdependent relationships that the literature proposes to exist in rural communities. In such a context, the career plans of youth would likely be influenced by friends.

The findings of this study are consistent with the literature. There is substantial evidence that parents have significant influence on the career development of their children (Herr and Cramer, 1996; Lee, 1984; Lehr and Jeffery, 1996; Trusty et al., 1996). There is also support in the literature that peer plans (Carpenter and Western, 1984 cited in Genge, 1996) and the value of education in the home (McGrath,1993 cited in Genge, 1996) influence the career plans of youth.

The results of this study had similarities and differences with those of Genge (1996) and others. Like the students in this study, Genge's sample also indicated their career plans were influenced by their academic ability. As well, students in this study and Genge's (1996) study perceived that community attachment had little influence on their career plans despite evidence in the literature (Looker, 1993) that suggests otherwise. These findings suggest that students are taking a personalized and realistic approach to career planning rather than being overly influenced by contextual, situational factors and are relying more on personal, inner resources rather than being dictated to by environment.

Lack of role models is cited in the literature as one of the limitations to the career development of rural youth (Apostal and Bilden, 1991; Boak and Boak, 1989; Hall et al., 1995; Jeffery, Lehr, Hache, and Campbell, 1992). In this study, very few respondents,

particularly rural students, indicated that their career plans were influenced by someone in their community. Not unexpectedly, the percentage for urban students was slightly higher given their access to a broader range of people in their community.

Although there is reasonable support in the literature that family socioeconomic status (Anisef et al., 1980; Genge, 1996; Shave, 1984; Tilley, 1975) and local, economic conditions (Genge, 1996; Gregory and Duncan, 1980, and Gustman and Steinmeier, 1981 cited in Genge, 1996) influence the career paths of youth, the findings of this study did not provide strong support. Few students (less than 10%) indicated that their family financial situation and economic conditions in Newfoundland and Labrador were one of the most influential factors in their career plans.

It is interesting to note that most students in the present study perceived that their teachers and guidance counsellor had little influence on their career plans. In fact, all the urban students indicated that their guidance counsellor was not one of the three most influential factors on their immediate career plans. Sharpe and Spain (1991) reported that school personnel influenced the career choices of a very small number of students in that study. Further research is needed to determine the validity and reasons for such perceived lack of influence.

Research Question 7

What factors did students perceive to be problematic in deciding career plans?

Factors believed to be problematic for students in deciding career plans were not

perceived to be serious problems by the majority of students in this study. Many considered these factors to be somewhat of a problem.

The factors that were considered serious problems for the largest number of students were education costs and knowing what interested them. These findings were consistent for both the urban and rural students. Interestingly, the number of students who decided not to pursue post-secondary education next year and who perceived the cost of post-secondary education as being seriously problematic was the same. The belief that cost is a barrier to post-secondary education appears to be supported in this study. These findings are consistent with other studies that have also found cost to be a major concern and barrier for students deciding to further their education after high school graduation (Genge, 1996; Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998b; Sharpe and Spain, 1991). For Newfoundland students, this problem is becoming particularly acute because as tuition costs continue to increase, the average family income in Newfoundland and Labrador is reportedly the lowest in Canada and the gap is growing (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 1998b).

High school preparation and having to leave home were not serious problems for most students. This was consistent with earlier Newfoundland studies. Sharpe and White (1993) reported that most students in their sample felt their high school education helpful in their career plans. Genge (1996) and Pearce (1998) found attachment to home not to be a serious barrier to post-secondary education as demonstrated by the willingness of the majority of students in both samples to move away from home to pursue further education.

Research Question 8

What were parents' level of agreement with students' immediate career plans?

As expected, the level of parental agreement with students' plans for the year after Level III was high. The majority of both rural and urban students indicated that both parents at least mostly agreed with their plans. These findings are consistent with those of Sharpe and White (1993) and Sharpe and Spain (1991).

Research Question 9

What are students' perceptions regarding what their parents think they should do immediately after high school?

Most students believed that their parents, and particularly their mothers, wanted them to continue their education rather than work. Both the urban and rural students were similar in their perceptions. Sharpe and White (1993) also found that slightly more of the fathers tended to support working than pursuing education. The consistency of these overall findings with Sharpe and White (1993) confirms that parents see the value and necessity of education beyond high school and appear to be instilling its importance in their children.

Research Question 10

What are students' perceptions as to their self-esteem and community attachment?

The majority of students in this study held positive perceptions of themselves in terms

of their abilities and self-esteem. Since this was an exploratory study, further research is needed to determine just how realistic and accurate these perceptions are. Sharpe and Spain (1991) also reported that most students in their sample had positive self-concepts from both an academic and vocational perspective.

The relationship between self-esteem and career development is well established in the literature (Battle, Grant, and Heggoy, 1995; Lee, 1984; Bane, 1970 and Zieglar, 1973 cited in Lee, 1984 Porter et al., 1973; Sarigiani, et al., 1990; Shave, 1984; Tilley, 1975 cited in Genge, 1996; Wiseman, 1982). Studies (for example, Bane, 1970 and Zieglar, 1973 cited in Lee, 1984) have shown that youth with high self-esteem are better prepared to determine how particular occupations can meet personal needs, values, interests and abilities. Despite evidence in the literature (for example, Berryman et al.,1983, Petersen et al., 1978, Schlichter, 1981 cited in Kleinsesser, 1986; Sarigiani et al., 1990) that rural youth generally have lower self-esteem than urban youth, the findings of this study do not support this argument. Given the exploratory nature of this study, however, further research would be needed to reach more definite conclusions with respect to students from rural Newfoundland.

With respect to community attachment, the majority of students overall indicated they would not experience much conflict having to leave their community for education or work even though they liked living there. The percentage of urban students who indicated they would feel torn having to leave home was somewhat higher than the rural sample. Although the significance of the difference cannot be determined, this finding suggests that in the Newfoundland context, the notion that rural youth experience more conflict than urban youth

over the decision to leave home to pursue either education or work may not be valid. It is possible that most rural students realize early in their school years that leaving home to pursue a career is an inevitable reality for them and by Level III are psychologically and mentally prepared to take such a step. Urban students, however, would no doubt tend to grow up believing they will be able to pursue their career plans within the community. Any consideration of having to leave in order to pursue career plans could create conflict for many of them. More research would need to be done to further explore this idea.

Research Question 11

Are there gender differences on students' career aspirations?

There was a general tendency for males and females to make stereotypical gender choices in occupations. More males chose occupations in traditionally male-dominated areas such as natural sciences, engineering and mathematics; forestry and logging; mining; product fabrication, assembly and repair; transportation equipment and operating; and construction trades while more females chose occupations in traditionally female-dominated areas such as medicine and health; social sciences; teaching and related occupations; and artistic, literacy and performing arts. Females, particularly rural females, appeared more willing to move into non-traditional areas as evidenced by their higher numbers in managerial, administrative and related occupations which traditionally have been male dominated. As well, a number of females, aspired to occupations in male dominated areas of natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics and product fabrication assembly and repair. No females, however, aspired to

occupations in the male-dominated areas of forestry and logging, mining, machining and construction.

Both Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991) reported very similar findings in their earlier studies of Newfoundland Level III students. One exception, however, was that overall gender differences in the service occupations were reversed from that of the earlier studies. While the trend for the urban sample was consistent with that of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991), more females than males in both the rural and combined samples aspired to occupations in the service industry. Genge's (1996) suggestion that the service industry may be attracting more males is not substantiated by this study. With the difference between the numbers in this study being much less than that of Genge's suggests that this industry may interest both males and females more equally.

There were no significant gender differences with respect to the GED and SVP levels which help compare occupational status. It is noteworthy, though, that more females aspired to occupations with both GED and SVP levels that are considered generally high.

Research Question 12

Are there gender differences on students' immediate career plans?

There was no significant gender difference at the $p < 0.05$ level with respect to immediate career plans even when the samples were examined separately. It was noted, however, that overall a greater percentage of females than their male counterparts planned to continue their education next year while higher percentages of males planned to do

otherwise. This was particularly evident for the rural students. In the urban sample, slightly more of the males planned to continue their education by either pursuing post-secondary education or returning to high school while slightly more females planned to work or take the year off.

With respect to choice of type and location of institution for those who planned to pursue post-secondary education, a greater portion of both rural and urban females intended to attend university either in or outside the province while higher percentages of males selected a public or private college either in or outside the province. One exception was that a higher percentage of rural females compared to rural males planned to attend a public or private college outside the province.

These findings are consistent with those of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991) as well as with those of Looker and McNutt (1993) whose sample were youth from Nova Scotia. The fact that more females have definite plans to pursue post-secondary education may be a reflection of their reported higher academic performance in school, and thus more of them are prepared to meet entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions. As well, there may be more opportunity for males to work in rural Newfoundland. The higher interest of males in college education is probably the result of the fact that more of the occupations aspired to by males require college training.

Research Question 13

Are there gender differences on students' future career expectations?

Both males and females differed on some of their career expectations for the future. More females expected to be homemakers in five to ten years while employed full-time. While more males expected to have part-time/seasonal employment, more females believed they would be either furthering their education or furthering their education and working. Significantly more females are also expected to be employed in the occupation they aspired towards in Level III. Both sexes held similar expectations with respect to their future residence location.

Genge (1996) reported findings consistent with this study. It appears that while males and females are still holding on to traditional gender roles, the findings of this study, like Genge's (1996) supports other findings in the literature that more females are aspiring towards more education than males (Looker and McNutt, 1993).

Research Question 14

Are there gender differences on reasons for not continuing education/training?

Gender differences were found on reasons for not continuing their education next years, but they were not significant at the 0.05 level. These differences were more pronounced for the rural sample. More males cited lack of academic ability, having to leave home, lack of desire to continue further education, the belief that further education is not necessary to get a job, and indecision regarding what program to do as reasons while more females indicated not having the grades as a reason. This was somewhat surprising given that more females reported overall school averages in the average and above average grade

ranges. Overall findings were consistent with those of Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991) in that differences were not significant.

Research Question 15

Are there gender differences on factors that influenced students' immediate career plans?

Significant gender differences existed on some of the factors that influenced students' immediate career plans. More females overall, said that their mothers and their academic ability influenced their plans. This was particularly prominent in the rural sample where significantly more of the females also indicated that their plans were influenced by the value of education at home and by a person outside the community. Significantly more females overall felt their mother was most influential on their plans while significantly more males perceived their father or another family member influenced their plan the most. While these differences were evident in both the rural and urban sample, they were not significant.

There is support in the literature for some of these findings. Dunne et al. (1977) and Stevens and Mason (1994) found that the occupational decisions of females were influenced more by their mother than their father while both parents more equally influenced the occupational plans of males. Mason and Stevens (1993), however, found mothers were most influential on the career decision of their children regardless of gender. The higher number of males in this study who indicated their plans were influenced more by the father than by the mother may be due to a more traditional and stereotypical alignment of parental

relationships by gender that may exist in Newfoundland society particularly in rural Newfoundland, where sons may have more opportunity to spend time with their fathers observing them in their workplace.

Research Question 16

Are there gender differences on factors perceived to be problematic in deciding career plans?

While gender differences on factors perceived to be problematic in deciding career decisions and plans did not vary much for the combined sample in this study, there were significant differences in both the rural and urban samples. More of the rural males than their female counterparts perceived that their high school preparation was somewhat a problem in their career decision-making plans. Significantly more of the urban females compared to their male counterparts indicated that the cost of furthering their education was a serious problem in making their career plans. Although not significant, it is interesting that a higher portion of males in both the rural and urban samples perceived that knowing what interested them was a serious problem in making their career plans. It is possible that the rural gender difference may be linked to the availability of high school courses and other resources or programs, especially for males.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to provide a description of the career aspirations,

immediate career plans, and future career expectations of both rural and urban Newfoundland youth in their graduating year of high school. Other areas that were explored included student perceptions of barriers to post-secondary education, the level of parental support for their career plans, and factors that influenced their immediate career plans.

The students in this study aspired to a variety of jobs from different occupational groups requiring high levels of skill and training beyond high school. Their choices appeared to be influenced by future occupational prospects, gender, and growing labour market demands for a more highly trained workforce. While most student choices were in areas that have been forecasted to experience future occupational growth, they also reflected a gender bias particularly for males. It appeared that females were somewhat more willing than males to move into non-stereotypical occupational areas. This pattern was similar to that reported by Genge (1996) and suggests that gender still remains an influential factor in the career decisions of the youth in this province.

The fact that very few students planned to pursue occupations within the province's primary resource industries suggests that they do not anticipate a secure economic future in these areas. The crisis and change within the primary industries appear to have influenced student choices more than the economic and industrial growth that is expected due to restructuring, diversification, and the discovery of more resources.

Student transitional plans were similar to those reported by Genge (1996) and Sharpe and Spain (1991) with the majority of students (75%) planning to pursue post-secondary education immediately following high school graduation. In fact, when compared to previous

studies, there was an increase in the number of students who planned to pursue post-secondary education immediately after high school graduation. Students appear to have recognized the importance of furthering their education if they are to compete in a modern, global labour market.

Similar to the immediate career plans of youth in other studies, the majority of students in this study who planned to continue their education next year indicated it would be at a university. It is likely most youth are pursuing university levels of education because of the better employment prospects that are forecasted to exist for those with higher levels of education.

The fact that more of the rural than urban students planned to attend college rather than university may be related to the higher costs involved for rural students to pursue post-secondary education. Thus, more of these students chose college-type programs because they are generally of shorter duration and therefore cost less. As well, with the outmigration plans that many of these youth have, a large number of them may be pursuing college-type programs, particularly in the area of computers which they believe will provide them with the necessary training and skills to obtain employment in the shortest possible time.

Consistent with the findings of other studies (Genge, 1996; Sharpe and White, 1991; Looker and McNutt, 1983), this study found that generally more of the rural females than their male counterparts aspired to post-secondary education and particularly towards university programs. Based on these results, it appears that the trend is continuing where more females than males are pursuing post-secondary education.

Compared to the findings of earlier studies (Genge, 1996, Sharpe and Spain, 1991), there is evidence in this study that the number of students planning to pursue post-secondary education outside the province is growing. The fact that first year students can begin professional degree programs such as social work, nursing, and engineering at universities outside the province thereby completing such programs in one year less than in Newfoundland may be one possible explanation for this growing trend. As well, the prospect of attending a smaller university that may be able to provide a high degree of individualized instruction may appeal to students. There is also the possibility that for some students, attending an institution outside the province is an expression of one's socioeconomic status.

While students had fairly high expectations for future employment, most do not expect to find it in Newfoundland. This was particularly evident among the rural students where almost three-quarters of them expected to be living outside the province in order to work in their desired occupations. Despite new and promising economic developments within the province, findings suggest that the youth are not yet willing to plan their futures around the current economic uncertainty that still exists in Newfoundland and Labrador.

There were several potential barriers to post-secondary education identified in this study. While the high cost of post-secondary education was acknowledged as a barrier by students, the greatest barrier for most related to career indecision and inability to meet entrance requirements to post-secondary institutions. The largest number of students indicated that the most important reasons they were not pursuing post-secondary education immediately after high school was that they either did not meet post-secondary entrance

requirements or they did not know what program to do. The latter reason was no doubt connected to the fact that a number of students indicated that not knowing what programs interested them was problematic in deciding career plans.

This study did not provide strong evidence to support the notion that community attachment is a barrier to post-secondary education or employment, particularly among rural students. Despite the conclusions of Rojewski et at (1995) and Looker (1993) that community attachment is a barrier to post-secondary education for rural students, this study's findings were consistent with those of Genge (1996) and support her conclusion that community attachment is not a major barrier at all. No students said that having to leave their home was the most important reason for not continuing their education and few of them indicated it was one of the reasons they decided not to pursue post-secondary immediately after high school graduation. Most students in this study indicated they would not experience much conflict having to leave their home community to further their education or to work even though they currently enjoy living there. Out of the number of students who indicated they would feel torn having to leave their home community to continue their education, it is interesting that many of them were urban rather than rural. This may be due to the lack of psychological preparation on the part of the urban students in recognizing that, given the economic climate of this province, they may very well need to move in order to pursue their career goals.

Overall, it appears that students were willing to leave their home communities to pursue their career goals. However, the effect of community attachment on the immediate

career plans of students, particularly those from rural Newfoundland, is still largely unknown due to the difficulty of assessing this relationship and needs to be further explored with respect to factors that influence students career plans.

The findings of this study indicated that, overall, parents had a major influence on the immediate career plans of students. This was further evidenced by the perceived high level of parental agreement with student's immediate career plans reported by the students. Rural students, however, also perceived the influence of friends upon their career plans to be significant. This may be explained by the closer, interdependent relationships that the literature (House,1986, 1989; Jansen and Rude, 1964 cited in Sweeney, 1971; Jeffery et al., 1995; Larson, 1978 cited in Dunne 1979; Sanders, 1977 ; Vaughn and Vaughn, 1986) proposes to exist in rural communities and in such a context, students who do not know their interests more likely may pursue a career path because friends have chosen that path.

Unlike the findings of Genge (1996), this study did not provide much evidence that the province's economic condition influenced student's career plans a lot. Few students (less than 10%) indicated that their family situation or economic conditions had much influence on their career plans. This was further evidenced by the indication by many students that they would fund their education through student loans.

The students in this study, like those in Sharpe and Spain (1991), perceived that their teachers and guidance counsellor had little influence on their career plans. Although this perception may not be an indication of the school but reflects rather the overriding influence parents have on their student's career decision, it is an area that could be further investigated.

Recommendations

The findings of this exploratory study have revealed areas of concern related to the career planning process of youth in this province that deserve attention. For most youth in this study, failure to meet post-secondary entrance requirements and not knowing what program to do were cited as the main reasons for not continuing their education immediately after high school. It is suggested that the Department of Education explore on the school level the reasons for student failure to meet such requirements. At the same time, the post-secondary institutions could be encouraged to reexamine entrance requirements and conduct studies to determine whether potential graduates are being denied access to a post-secondary education because of raised entrance requirements.

Lack of knowledge among students on what program to do needs to be addressed in order to provide adequate career direction for youth. Given the competitive and global labour market that today's students are entering, it is essential that they plan their occupations around programs that offer a future. It is important that schools take a deliberate and active role in guiding students in their career planning process and in educating them about the labour market and future occupations. To accomplish this requires the increased partnership of schools with government and community agencies in order to provide youth with the knowledge needed to make reliable and informed career decision. Schools and school boards could also be encouraged to develop ways of consistently exposing students to post-secondary programs and associated job potentials. Career decision-making courses such as Career 3101 should be a requirement for all Level I and II students rather than an elective as

it is currently offered.

The students in this study, like those in previous ones, indicated that their parents were the most significant influence on their career plans. Since career development is a continuous process, parents, along with teachers and counsellors, need to be apprised on the importance of early intervention. Given the fact that self-esteem and knowledge of self is a developmental process fundamentally connected with career development, such early intervention must involve programming and not just the passing on of information.

It is particularly essential, then, that parents be empowered to provide informed and adequate guidance to their children as it pertains to career decision making. Schools and other community agencies should be encouraged to partner more directly and consistently with parents in order to provide them with the necessary skills and information to assist and guide their children in making career decisions. Career information workshops and seminars, for example, also need to be offered to parents of young children as a way of empowering them to assist their children in their career decisions.

This study's findings also have implications for provincial policy and practice. While the majority of respondents indicated they intend to pursue post-secondary education, it was not surprising that they expected to be employed outside the province in five to ten years. Given this outlook, it is recommended that government reexamine current policy and practice in the effort to counteract the "brain drain" that is occurring in the province.

Given the fact that most respondents reported they plan to be working in five to ten years, it is recommended that government and educational institutions policies reflect the

need to assist workers in meeting the growing demands that will result in balancing work and family roles.

Recommendations for Further Research

The results of this study have raised questions for further research in the area of career development amongst rural and urban youth. Some suggested areas for investigation include:

1. Why more rural than urban students are planning to attend college than university;
2. Why the number of students deciding to attend educational institutions outside the province is increasing;
3. The effect of community attachment on the career plans of rural youth;
4. A comparison of the self-esteem and career aspirations of rural and urban students within the province; and
5. Why students perceive teachers and guidance counsellors as having little influence on their career plans.

It is also recommended that a follow-up study be conducted on the students in this study to provide a more accurate picture of the transition patterns of Newfoundland youth and the issues that need to be addressed. The findings from such research could be used to address the transitional and career planning concerns of future senior high school students.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

Dear Level III Student:

You are being asked to participate in a study conducted by Calvin Whalen, a teacher at Indian River High, Springdale. The study is concerned with the career aspirations, future career expectations, and immediate career plans of Level III students from selected rural and urban schools in Newfoundland and Labrador. The questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. The results of this study will help educators and other practitioners in providing better career development services to the youth of this province.

Mr. Whalen is a Masters of Educational Psychology student at Memorial University and is conducting this study under the supervision of Dr. Mildred Cahill, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland. Both the school board and your principal have given approval to solicit your participation in this study. Would you be so kind to complete the attached questionnaire which should take no more than 30 minutes of your time.

The information you provide will be strictly confidential. At no time will any attempt be made to identify individual participants. Results will be reported on a group basis only and will be made available upon request to participating school boards and schools. Participation in this study is strictly voluntary; you may withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice.

If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact the researcher at 673-2791 or his supervisor, Dr. Mildred Cahill at 737-6980. Should you wish to speak with a resource person not associated with this study, contact Dr. Bruce Sheppard, Associate Dean, Graduate Programs & Research.

Thank you for your participation in this study. It is greatly appreciated.

Do not put your name on the questionnaire. Place your completed questionnaire in the envelope provided.

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Put a ✓ in the blank that corresponds to your response.

1. I am ___ male ___ female

2. I am ___ 15 ___ 16 ___ 17 ___ 18 ___ 19 ___ over 19

3. What is the population of your community?
   ___ Less than 5000
   ___ 5000 or more

4. Which set of marks below are closest to your final overall average in school last year?
   ___ 80 or above
   ___ 65 - 79
   ___ 50 - 64
   ___ 49 or below

5. Which set of marks below are closest to your average in school this year?
   ___ 80 or above
   ___ 65 - 79
   ___ 50 - 64
   ___ 49 or below

6. Please indicate the highest level of education completed by your father and your mother.

Education Level	Mother	Father
Some schooling	___	___
Graduated from high school	___	___
Some university education	___	___
Some college education	___	___
University graduate	___	___
College graduate	___	___
Don't know	___	___

7. What was your father's employment status over the past 12 months?
   ___ Employed full-time
   ___ Employed part-time
   ___ Unemployed

8. What was your mother's employment status over the past 12 months?
   ___ Employed full-time
   ___ Employed part-time
   ___ Unemployed

9. When employed, what is your father's occupation? _____

10. When employed, what is your mother's occupation? _____

11. What occupation would you like to have 5 to 10 years from now? **(If you don't know, please go to Item #16)**_____

12. About how long have you been interested in this occupation?
   ___ Less than 1 year
   ___ 1 to 2 years
   ___ More than 2 years
   ___ Don't know

13. How did you become interested in this occupation?
   ___ Through parents
   ___ Through friends
   ___ Through a teacher
   ___ Through the Guidance Counselor
   ___ Other

   If other, briefly explain. _____

14. Is there someone you know who works in this occupation?
   ___ Yes ___ No

15. If yes, have you ever discussed this occupation with that person? ___ Yes ___ No

16. What do you expect to be doing in 5 to 10 years from now?

___ Employed full-time
___ Employed part-time or seasonally and collecting unemployment insurance
___ Unemployed
___ Unemployed but a homemaker
___ Employed full-time and a homemaker
___ Employed part-time or seasonally and a homemaker
___ Furthering my education

17. If you expect to be employed either full-time or part-time, in what occupation will it be? (Check one below.)

___ The occupation listed in item 12
___ An occupation different than the one listed in item 12. Please specify:____
_____

18. Where do you expect to be living in 5 to 10 years from now ?
___ In hometown area in Nfld
___ Somewhere else in Nfld but not in hometown area
___ Somewhere outside of Nfld

19. Which of the following choices best describes your plans for next year?
___ I don't have a plan for next year (Go to Item #22)
___ I plan to take the year off (Go to Item #22)
___ I plan to go to work (Go to Item #22)
___ I plan to return to high school (Go to Item #22)
___ I plan to further my education/training

20. What post-secondary institution are you planning to attend?
___ Memorial University of Newfoundland
___ A university outside Newfoundland
___ A public college in Newfoundland
___ A public college outside Newfoundland
___ A private college in Newfoundland
___ A private college outside Newfoundland
___ Don't know

21. How do you plan to get the money needed for your educational plans next year?

Source of money needed	None	Some	Half	Most	All
Parents	___	___	___	___	___
Other relatives	___	___	___	___	___
Part-time work during the year	___	___	___	___	___
Summer job	___	___	___	___	___
Canada Student Loan	___	___	___	___	___
Scholarship/bursary	___	___	___	___	___
Other:_____	___	___	___	___	___

Please go to Item # 26

22. From the list below, circle the number at the right that corresponds to the reason or reasons for deciding not to further your education after high school graduation. You may circle more than one number.

It costs too much money	1
I may not have enough money for school	2
I would have to leave my home community	3
I feel I don't have the ability to do well in post-secondary education	4
I haven't decided what program I'd like to do	5
I do not have the grades to meet entrance requirements to university or college	6
I am needed at home	7
I have no desire to further my education at this time	8
I feel that further education/training is not necessary for me to get a job	9
I have a chance to work	10
I am getting married	11

If you circled more than one number, which one would you consider to be the most important reason for deciding not to further your education at this point? _____

Which one would you consider to be the least important reason? _____

23. If you plan to be working next year, what job do you think you will have?_____

_____

24. Where do you expect to be employed in this occupation?
    - ___ In hometown area
    - ___ Elsewhere in Nfld but not in hometown area
    - ___ Outside of Nfld

25. Do you expect to further your education at a later time?
    - ___ Yes
    - ___ No
    - ___ Not sure

26. What do your parent(s) think you should do after high school graduation? Please indicate the response appropriate for each parent.

Parents' thoughts on what I should do after high school	**Mother**	**Father**
Thinks I should start working for pay	___	___
Is insisting that I continue my education/training	___	___
Definitely would like me to continue my education/training	___	___
Might like me to continue my education/training	___	___
Does not care what I do	___	___
I don't know what he/she would like me to do	___	___
Does not apply to me	___	___

27. What is your parent(s)' level of agreement with your plans for next year? Please indicate the response appropriate for each parent.

Parents' Level of Agreement with next year's plans	**Mother**	**Father**
Agrees completely	___	___
Agrees mostly	___	___
Disagrees somewhat	___	___
Disagrees a lot	___	___
I have no plans	___	___
Does not apply to me	___	___

28. How much did each of the following influence your plans for next year?

	A Lot	Some	A Little	Not at All
a) Mother	___	___	___	___
b) Father	___	___	___	___
c) Other family member	___	___	___	___
d) Teacher	___	___	___	___
e) Guidance Counselor	___	___	___	___
f) Friend(s)	___	___	___	___
g) Person in community	___	___	___	___
h) Person outside community	___	___	___	___
i) High school program	___	___	___	___
j) Academic ability	___	___	___	___
k) Economic condition in Nfld.	___	___	___	___
l) Entrance requirements to post-secondary schools	___	___	___	___
m) Desire to stay home or near home	___	___	___	___
n) Financial situation of family	___	___	___	___
o) Personal financial situation	___	___	___	___
p) Value placed on education in my home	___	___	___	___
q) Value placed on work in my home	___	___	___	___

Which of the factors above had

the most influence?_____

the second most influence ?_____

the third most influence? _____

29. Many young people have problems trying to make career plans. Please indicate how much of a problem you feel each of the following was for your career decision making plans.

	Not a problem	Somewhat a problem	Serious problem
My high school preparation....	___	___	___
Having to leave home.....	___	___	___
Knowing what interests me.....	___	___	___
Knowing what careers are available.....	___	___	___
The cost of furthering my education.....	___	___	___

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the statements below. Circle 1 if you strongly agree; 2 if you agree; 3 if you are uncertain; 4 if you disagree; and 5 if you strongly disagree.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
30) I am a good learner	1	2	3	4	5
31) For the most part, I like the way I am	1	2	3	4	5
32) I can accomplish whatever I put my mind to	1	2	3	4	5
33 I am capable of training for any occupation I like	1	2	3	4	5
34) I am as academically capable as most of my classmates	1	2	3	4	5
35) I feel that my peers like me	1	2	3	4	5
36) I will likely be successful at whatever I choose to do in life	1	2	3	4	5
37) I like living in my community	1	2	3	4	5
38) I would feel torn having to leave my community to find work	1	2	3	4	5
49) I would feel torn having to leave my community to further my education	1	2	3	4	5
40) I prefer to stay in or near my home community to work	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Letters to Directors of Education

LETTER TO DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

Dear Mr. Wilkins:

My name is Calvin Whalen and I am presently completing a thesis for the Masters of Educational Psychology degree at Memorial University of Newfoundland. The title of my thesis is "A Study of the Career Aspirations, Future Career Expectations, and Immediate Career Plans of Level III Students From Selected Rural and Urban Schools in Newfoundland and Labrador". This study will examine whether significant differences exist with respect to the occupational aspirations of rural and urban Level III students. Student perceptions of their future career expectations, immediate career plans, and problems likely to be encountered in the transition to post-secondary education and/or the workforce will also be examined. The study has been approved by the Faculty of Education's Ethics Review Committee.

For the required rural sample, I am proposing to survey all Level III students in the Green Bay area during the last week of May, 1999 using the enclosed questionnaire. With your permission, I would like to administer this questionnaire to all Level III students attending schools in Green Bay which fall under the administration of the Baie Verte/Central/ Connaigre School District. I am specifically requesting your permission to contact the principals of Indian River Senior High, Dorset Collegiate, Valmont Academy, H. L. Strong Academy, and Long Island Academy and ask their permission to have their Level III students participate in this study.

At no time will any attempt be made to identify student participants. Information will be confidential and anonymity is assured. Group results will be reported only. The results of the study will be made available to you, school board members, and participating schools upon request. Participation is strictly voluntary. You, the school, or individual student may withdraw at any time without prejudice.

If you are prepared to grant this request, please sign the attached permission form and have it returned to me at the above address as soon as possible. If you have any questions or concerns, I may be contacted prior to April 15th at 722-4421 and at 673-2791 after that date. If you wish to contact my supervisor, Dr. Mildred Cahill, she may be reached at 737-6980. If at any time you wish to speak with a resource person not associated with this study, please contact Dr. Bruce Sheppard, Associate Dean, Graduate Programs & Research.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

Sincerely,

Calvin Whalen

Permission Form

I , _____ , hereby grant permission to Calvin Whalen or his thesis supervisor to contact the principals of Indian River Senior High, Dorset Collegiate, Valmont Academy, H. L. Strong Academy, and Long Island Academy which are under the administration of the Baie Verte/Central/ Connaigre School Board and request their permission to have Level III students in their respective schools participate in his study. I understand that participation is entirely voluntary and that I, the principals, or students can withdraw from this study at any time without prejudice. All information is to be strictly confidential and no individual will be identified. Group results will be reported only.

_____

Mr. Domino Wilkins, Director
Baie Verte/Central/Connaigre School District

_____

Date

LETTER TO DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

Dear Mr. Shortall:

My name is Calvin Whalen and I am presently completing a thesis for the Masters of Educational Psychology degree at Memorial University of Newfoundland. The title of my thesis is "A Study of the Career Aspirations, Future Career Expectations, and Immediate Career Plans of Level III Students From Selected Rural and Urban Schools in Newfoundland and Labrador". This study will examine whether significant differences exist with respect to the occupational aspirations of rural and urban Level III students. Student perceptions of their future career expectations, immediate career plans, and problems likely to be encountered in the transition to post-secondary education and/or the workforce will also be examined. The study has been approved by the Faculty of Education's Ethics Review Committee.

For the urban sample, I am proposing to survey all Level III students at Gonzaga High School and Prince of Wales Collegiate during the last week of May, 1999 using the enclosed questionnaire. With your permission, I would like to administer this questionnaire to the Level III students attending these two high schools which fall under the administration of the Avalon East School Board. I am specifically requesting your permission to contact the principals of these two schools and ask their permission to have their Level III students participate in this study.

At no time will any attempt be made to identify student participants. Information will be confidential and anonymity is assured. Group results will be reported only. The results of the study will be made available to you, school board members, and participating schools upon request. Participation is strictly voluntary. You, the school, or individual student may withdraw at any time without prejudice.

If you are prepared to grant this request, please sign the attached permission form and have it returned to me at the above address as soon as possible. If you have any questions or concerns, I may be contacted prior to April 15th at 722-4421 and at 673-2791 after that date. If you wish to contact my supervisor, Dr. Mildred Cahill, she may be reached at 737-6980. If at any time you wish to speak with a resource person not associated with this study, please contact Dr. Bruce Sheppard, Associate Dean, Graduate Programs & Research.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

Sincerely,

Calvin Whalen

Permission Form

I , _____ , hereby grant permission to Calvin Whalen or his thesis supervisor to contact the principals of Gonzaga High School and Prince of Wales Collegiate which are under the administration of the Avalon East School Board and request their permission to have Level III students in their respective schools participate in his study. I understand that participation is entirely voluntary and that I, the principals, or students can withdraw from this study at any time without prejudice. All information is to be strictly confidential and no individual will be identified. Group results will be reported only.

_____

Mr. Brian Shortall, Director
Avalon East School Board

_____

Date

APPENDIX C

Instructions for Administration of Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

The questionnaires are to be administered in a group setting, preferably in a classroom. The questionnaire will take approximately 45 minutes to administer.

To protect the confidentiality of the participants, please have the students place their completed questionnaire in the assigned envelope.

Please read the following instructions before passing out the questionnaires:

A teacher from the Baie Verte/Central/Connaigre School Board is conducting a study on the career aspirations of Level III students from selected schools in both rural and urban areas of Newfoundland and on some of the problems they encounter in making the transition to post-secondary education and/or the workforce. The school board and your principal has agreed to have this school participate in the study by providing you with the opportunity to complete a questionnaire.

While you do not have to participate, your participation would be greatly appreciated. Here is a chance for you to provide valuable information that can help in the career development and planning process of younger students in Newfoundland and Labrador.

To protect your anonymity and confidentiality, please do not write your name on the questionaire. All questionnaires will be placed in an envelope which will be sealed in the presence of other students and the teacher.

While you are completing the questionnaire, please do not discuss questions with other students. Answer the questions to the best of your ability. There are no right or wrong answers. If you have any difficulty reading or understanding any of the questions, you may ask the teacher to assist you.